Cross-National Consumer Behaviour in the European Food Retail Environment: The Strategic Impact of Culture on Consumer Involvement with Food

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Abstract

In the light of both increasing competition and internationalisation in retailing, there is a need to understand consumer markets in terms of global models of buying behaviour and strategic market planning. Consumer behaviour is an important determinant of a country's retail structure and impacts significantly on marketing strategy for international retail development. Food retailing is arguably subject to the influence of consumer culture to a greater extent than other forms of retailing. As purchase behaviour comes into practice at the point of sale, cross-national consumer similarities and differences are of key importance to discover in the environment of food retail internationalisation.

One element of the consumer choice process, involvement, has been investigated in a food retail context. Through a survey of food shoppers in the UK, France, Germany, Spain and Italy, and an illustrative store observation study, disparities in consumer behaviour have been identified.

The structure of the construct, involvement with food, exhibited four equivalent dimensions in each of the five selected EU countries. The level of each of the four dimensions of involvement are shown to differ significantly by country and other cultural variables, and also differ by the degree of effect they have on purchase behaviour.

The consumer differences identified have been used to develop and apply a framework for cross-cultural marketing strategy to aid decision-making in international retail development, and recognise competitive advantage through improved targeting of marketing and store operations.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 The Research Initiative

In the light of both increasing competition and internationalisation in food retailing, competitive advantage is constantly being sought. Competition has become increasingly intense within certain countries in the European Union (EU). With significant cost and price cutting, and with fears of market saturation, retailers seeking to expand further have looked at markets outside their national boundaries where they perceive that large-scale food retailing is less developed, where there is less overall competition; or where there are potential underdeveloped market segments (e.g. Dawson, 1994; Treadgold, 1991; Burt, 1991). There is a need, therefore, to understand consumer markets in terms of global models of buying behaviour and strategic market planning. Consumer behaviour is a fundamental determinant of a country's retail structure (Bareham, 1995; Fisher, 1990), and impacts significantly on marketing strategy for international retail development. In addition, food retailing may be subject to the influence of consumer culture to a greater extent than other forms of retailing (Mennell et al, 1992). As purchase behaviour comes into practice at the point of sale, cross-national consumer similarities and differences are of key importance to discover in the environment of food retail internationalisation. Identification of consumer trends can aid decision-making in retail development, and recognise competitive advantage through improved targeting of marketing and store operations.

The pervasive debate of standardisation versus customisation strategies in international development (Levitt, 1983; Wind, 1986; Dubois, 1987) is driven, to a large extent, by the existence of either 'global consumers' or 'culture-bound consumers' (Usunier, 1996). For example, without the emergence of homogeneous cross-country market segments, the economies of scale argument, justifying a standardisation strategy, loses its major theoretical basis. To attempt to resolve this debate, a supposedly 'homogeneous' geographical region, the European Union, was selected to identify whether commonalities or inconsistencies are evident in food purchase behaviour.

Internationalisation of Food Manufacturers and Retailers

A key development in the marketing of food products over the last decade or so has been that of internationalisation (Costa and Bammossy, 1995; Tordjman, 1995). This initially involved major national food manufacturers seeking to expand into markets outside their national boundaries by a variety of strategies. Central to this has been the development of global branding strategies for specific products or product ranges. This product internationalisation has tended to mask a similar, but more recent development of internationalisation amongst a number of major food retailing organisations. For example, French hypermarket operators, including Promodès, Auchan and Carrefour, have successfully developed in Spain, where they dominate the food sector. In comparison, French development into the UK has been less successful, as is evident from the failure of Carrefour. German discount firms, (i.e. Aldi, Lidl and Schwarz, and Norma), however, have gained market share in the UK, and also the Benelux countries, Denmark, and France.

Despite the growth of globalisation and internationalisation, retailing appears to retain a strong national identity (Dawson, 1994; Salmon & Tordjman, 1988). Additionally, European retailing in the grocery sector has been perceived as limited (Europanel Database, 1992; Retail Week, 1988). In-depth knowledge of each market in each country is called for, due to the diversity in purchasing patterns and trade structures, language barriers and the very nature of ownership of major retailing operations.

Definition of Retail Internationalisation

Retailers are involved in a variety of international activities. The international sourcing of products; the replication of ideas and management systems; the recruitment of foreign managers; the funding of retailing through international financial institutions; and the international operations which sell products and operate shops in more than one country, are all possible ways that retailers internationalise.

This thesis is concerned with one activity only, that of international retail operations. International retail operations may be defined as :

> "the operation, by a firm or alliance, of shops, or other forms of retail distribution, in more than one country" (Dawson, 1994).

Other international activities have been considered elsewhere (e.g. Dawson, 1994).

The Impact of Consumer Behaviour on Retail Internationalisation

A key factor which will in part determine the effectiveness and success of both the internationalisation of retailing and the globalisation of branding is the behaviour of the consumer (Bareham, 1995; Fisher, 1990). Conventional marketing models invariably present a list of factors which determine consumer behaviour - such lists include 'culture' as one factor, but this tends to be ranked relatively low with greater emphasis being placed upon, amongst others, life-style, socio-economic factors, demographics (e.g. Engel et al, 1995; Wilkie, 1994; Mahatoo, 1985). Retailers are required, if they are to be successful, to respond to the culture of their customers. Any move towards multi-store operations has to acknowledge that culture varies through space. This is particularly apparent when retailers choose to operate in diverse cultures whether within one country or across national borders (Martenson, 1988; 1987).

It is in the food sector that cultural and national differences are more deeply ingrained than any other sector in terms of a single European market (Dawson, 1994; Tordjman, 1995). Food has a strong local cultural aspect to consumer choice which limits opportunities for scale economies in buying to be achieved through international operations.

For example, breakfast in Mediterranean countries is typically coffee while in Northern Europe people are more likely to eat meat, cheese and/or cereals. It can be argued that food consumption patterns are a cultural factor which develop out of a complex network of traditional food eating, historical-social traditions and even cultural agrarian traditions, and despite the EU economic convergence, many national differences remain (Europanel Database, 1992).

The Europanel Database (1992) states that

> "Europe will remain a multiple market for a considerable time. Products, retailing methods and communication must be adapted to suit distinct national and regional situations, as well as the wide variety of consumer attitudes and types of consumer purchasing dynamics."

This can be illustrated through an examination of consumer choice criteria across the EU. Consumers choose products primarily based on quality and price (e.g. Mueller and Broderick, 1995; Europanel Database, 1992). Variations in choice criteria, do, however, occur. For example, the Spanish and Germans have been found to be the most attached to quality, (72 per cent choose on the basis of this criteria compared to 61 per cent on average) (Europanel Database, 1992). While in the UK and Belgium, quality scores lowest (49 per cent and 52 per cent respectively). Price criterion overall scores between 40 and 47 per cent, but Italy puts a low premium on this determinant (27 per cent). The reputation of brand names are particularly important to the British (45 per cent compared to 25 per cent on average and 16 per cent in Germany), which is helpful to the commercial performance of the private labels of British retailers.

Thus there are significant national and regional differences in food purchase and consumption patterns which surely must be recognised and understood if international food retailers are to meet the needs of consumers of different cultural backgrounds and at the same time meet economies of scale and operations implicit in the development of large-scale retailing. Furthermore, it is argued that it is at the retailer-consumer interface that the issues of cross-cultural/national consumer behaviour are likely to be of crucial importance.

1.1 The Literature Gap

The previous section has established the context in which the research was initiated, and identified that cross-frontier consumer behaviour in the European food retail environment is a pertinent subject for investigation. A review of extant literature has determined the lack of information in this subject. For example, a number of studies have been undertaken into the degree and type of standardisation practised by multinational companies (Hill & Still, 1984). Very little research, however, exists on the extent to which consumer purchasing strategies differ cross-culturally, and whether they are a key factor in determining whether standardisation or customisation development strategies should be implemented in the international food marketplace.

Culture is the broadest environmental dimension affecting consumer behaviour because norms, beliefs and customs learned from society lead to patterns of behaviour (Assael, 1984). Furthermore, most practitioners involved in international marketing agree that the biggest hindrance to operations is still cultural differences among people (e.g. Marketing Business, 1993; Europanel Database, 1992; Sherwood, 1990; Mueller and Broderick, 1995). Nevertheless, there have been few comparisons of the effects of two or more cultures on consumer decision-making. If globalisation strategies of firms are to be effective, therefore, the significance of cross-cultural/national consumer behaviour needs to be understood.

To market products effectively, it is necessary to understand consumer cultures and differences in various cultures. Moreover, by testing the cultural bounds of constructs that are part of consumer behaviour theory, the development of international marketing strategy may be aided.

The Application of Consumer Involvement to International Strategy

In general, the characteristics of consumer behaviour have been extensively studied by scholars. International research, however, remains relatively limited. The significance of cross-cultural/national consumer behaviour to international retail strategy, therefore, can not be determined until this deficiency has been resolved. The construct of involvement, (the degree to which consumers are involved in different aspects of the consumption process), is regarded as one of the central determinants of consumer behaviour (Beharrell and Dennison, 1995; Laaksonen, 1994). Yet although there have been many attempts to analyse consumer behaviour and the purchase process through involvement, little effort, has been made to establish the relationship between involvement and a cultural breakdown of international markets.

Involvement is a motivational state that mediates the environmental influences on behaviour, and accounts for the differences in the degree of both the mental and physical effort a consumer is willing to devote to consumption-related activities (Broderick and Mueller, 1995; Laaksonen, 1994; Antil, 1984). By measuring the level of consumer involvement in various countries, knowledge may be gained as to the feasibility of standardising product/service and communication variables in international marketing programmes. The associations between the micro-construct, involvement, and the macro-construct, culture, have been largely ignored, and the present study seeks to rectify this deficiency.

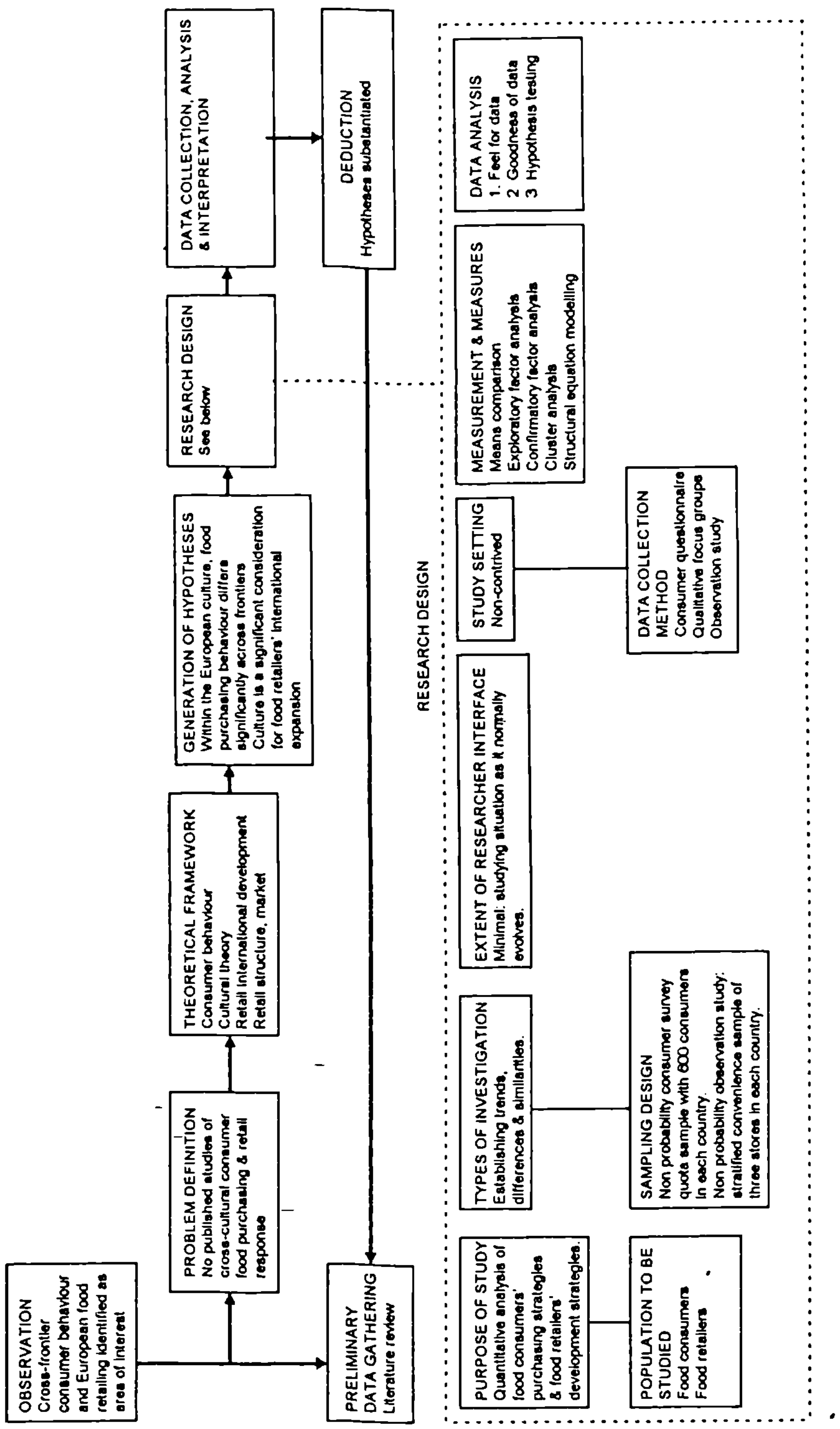
1.2 Structure of the Research Process

The research process conducted to investigate the identified literature gap is detailed in Figure 1.1, and illustrates a classical linear research process model (e.g. Sekaran, 1992). It has to be recognised that the linearity in this model is simplistic. In reality, the research process is circular, and has several simultaneous stages.

The research process involved eight elements and was conducted in three phases. The initial phase entailed a thorough literature search of the retail environment and relevant theory. In reviewing the literature a wide range of academic disciplines were utilised. Table 1.1 portrays the disciplines consulted for the key foci of the research. An overview of the retail industry as detailed in Chapter 2, examines retail structures and consumer markets across the EU, and retail internationalisation strategies. The thesis is not involved in a study of the retail industry, but uses the industry background to set the scene in which food purchase behaviour takes place. A literature review of cultural and consumer behaviour theory develops the research problem further. From the literature search, it was established that there are no published papers on the effect of cross-cultural consumer purchasing strategies on food retail internationalisation. The initial phase in the research process facilitated the problem definition and enabled the conceptualisation of a theoretical framework and hypotheses. The hypotheses generated were:

- within the European culture, food purchasing behaviour differs significantly across frontiers;
- culture is a significant consideration for food retailers' international expansion; and,
- that a quantitative measure of consumers' purchasing strategies would evaluate the appropriateness of retailers' development strategies and enable the identification of market segmentation opportunities.

Figure 1.1 The Research Process



Source: derived from Sekaran, 1992 (p.93)

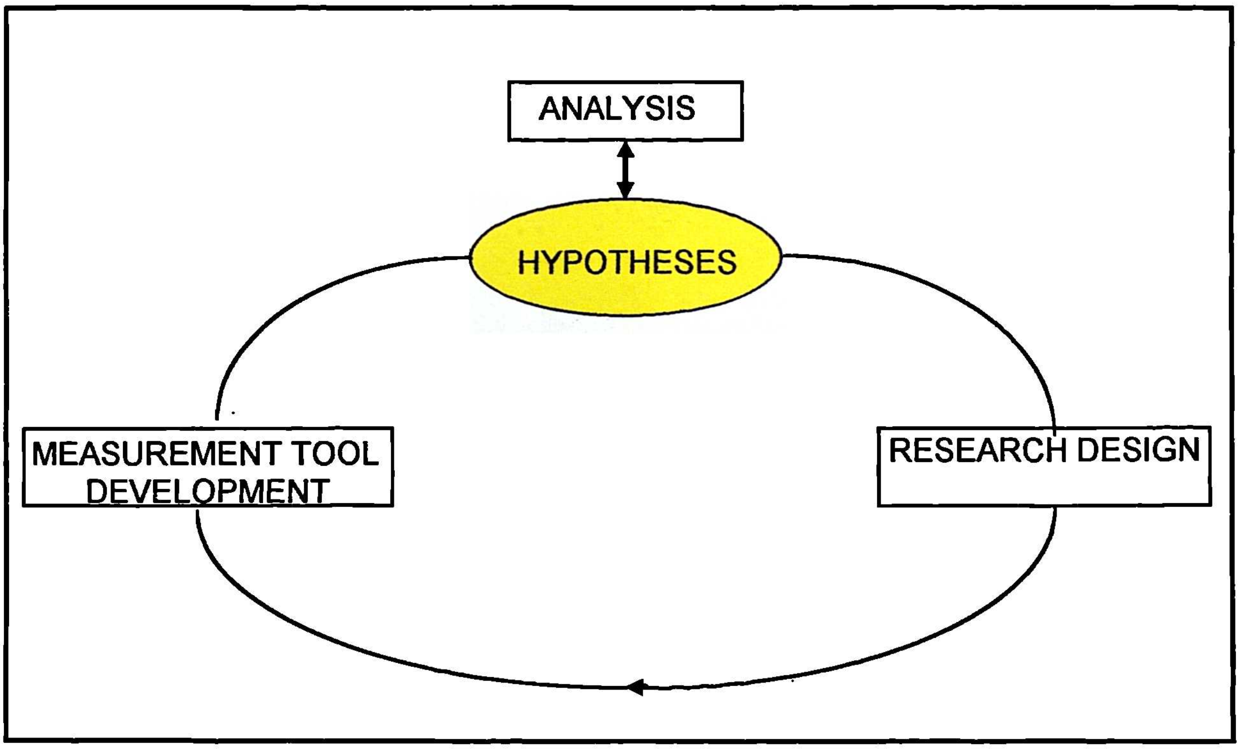
Table 1.1 Academic Foci of Research

Primary focus of research / Academic discipline	Retail Structure	Int. Retail Dev.	Consump. Patterns	Cultural Theory	Cross-Cultural Methodology	Consumer Purchasing Strategies
Marketing	●	●	●	●	●	●
Information Technology	●				●	●
Agricultural Economics	●	●	●			
Psychology				●	●	●
Sociology			●	●	●	●
Anthropology			●	●	●	●
Economics		●	●	●		
Statistical Mathematics						●
History	●		●	●	●	
Geography	●	●	●	●		

The second phase of the research process involved the development of a valid and reliable measurement instrument for the assessment of consumer purchasing strategies across the EU. The development of a measuring instrument is a significant part of the thesis output, and thus is described in a separate chapter. The final phase of the research process involved the implementation, analysis and interpretation of the primary research. Examination of the data result in the hypotheses being substantiated.

The research adopts a positivist paradigm, to test the hypotheses against the theoretical framework identified. The structure of the thesis can be more readily understood in terms a circular process (Figure 1.2). The hypotheses were formulated from the literature review; as no adequate measuring tool could be identified, the development and testing of the tool helped to reformulate the hypotheses which were then tested against the consumer data collected.

Figure 1.2 The Circular Nature of the Research Process



1.3 The Research Paradigm

Hunt (1991), proposed a schema that asserts that all marketing phenomena, topics and issues can be categorised using three categorical dichotomies; (1) profit sector/non profit sector, (2) micro/macro, and (3) positive/normative. The model can be applied as a general paradigm to guide the present research efforts, as it is properly inclusive, analytically useful, pedagogically sound, and conceptually robust (Hunt, 1991). The matrix in Figure 1.3 illustrates the profit sector, where the first cell includes all marketing topics that are micro-positive, the second cell includes all marketing activities that are micro-normative and so on (Hunt, 1976; Hunt, 1991).

The highlighted statements in Figure 1.3 are areas of investigation in this thesis; positive micro and positive macro perspectives have been adopted. Positive marketing adopts the perspective of attempting to describe, explain, predict and understand the marketing activities and phenomena that actually exist. This perspective examines 'what is'. In comparison, normative marketing adopts the perspective of attempting to prescribe what marketing organisations and individuals ought to do or what kinds of marketing systems a society ought to have. That is, this perspective examines what ought to be and what organisations and individuals ought to do. Micro refers to the marketing activities of individual units (firms and consumers or households), whilst macro refers to a higher level of aggregation, either marketing systems or groups of consumers.

Thus, the current research is describing, explaining, understanding and predicting both individual consumer behaviour and aggregate buying patterns. The culturally comparative research investigates the universality of consumer purchase decisions and retail development strategies.

Supporting this perspective is work promulgated by writers such as Holloway and Hancock (1968; 1964), and Scott and Marks (1968). An environmental approach to marketing was adopted by these authors, which emphasises an analysis of the environmental constraints on marketing activities. These constraints include consumer behaviour, culture, competition, the legal framework, technology, and the institutional framework. This approach may be classified as profit/macro/positive (Hunt, 1991), which provides a useful analytical framework and is complementary to the present study.

Specifically a positivist philosophy has been adopted to empirically test general similarities and/or differences in cultures and buyer behaviour for the purpose of marketing strategy, expressly market segmentation and targeting. Thus in-depth, qualitative observations would be less helpful for marketing management, than the discovery of general consumer trends for application to retail development strategies. The verificationist theory of meaning of the logical positivists has been rejected;

> "Any proposition which is not reducible to the simple enunciation of the fact - either particular or general - can have no real or intelligible meaning for us" (Keat and Urry, 1975).

Logical positivists stipulate that all propositions can be measured. The theoretical models utilised in the study, however, are recognised to possess error terms. Hypotheses are tested against quantitative data collected. All quantitative research, however, was based on an initial qualitative stage to ensure a thorough understanding of key issues.

Figure 1.3 The Three Dichotomies Model of Marketing: Profit Sector

<table>
<tr><th>POSITIVE - MICRO</th><th>NORMATIVE - MICRO</th></tr>
<tr><td>1. Problems issues, theories, and research concerning:
a) individual consumer buyer behaviour
b) how firms determine prices
c) how firms determine products
d) how firms determine promotion
e) how firms determine channels of distribution
f) case studies of marketing practices</td><td>2. Problems, issues, normative models, and research concerning how firms should:
a) determine the marketing mix
b) make pricing decisions
c) make product decisions
d) make promotion decisions
e) make packaging decisions
f) make purchasing decisions
g) make international decisions
h) organise their marketing departments
i) control their marketing efforts
j) plan their marketing strategy
k) apply systems theory to marketing problems
l) manage retail establishments
m) implement the marketing concept</td></tr>
<tr><th>POSITIVE - MACRO</th><th>NORMATIVE - MACRO</th></tr>
<tr><td>3. Problems, issues, theories, and research concerning:
a) aggregate consumption patterns
b) the institutional approach to marketing
c) the commodity approach to marketing
d) legal aspects of marketing
e) comparative marketing
f) the efficiency of marketing systems
g) whether the poor pay more
h) whether marketing spurs or retards economic development
i) power & conflict relationships in channels of distribution
j) whether marketing functions are universal
k) whether the marketing concept is consistent with consumers' interests</td><td>1. Problems, issues, normative models, and research concerning:
2. how marketing can be made more efficient
3. whether distribution costs too much
4. whether advertising is socially desirable
5. whether consumer sovereignty is desirable
6. whether stimulating demand is desirable
7. whether the poor should pay more
8. what kinds of laws regulating marketing are optimal
9. whether vertical marketing systems are socially desirable
10. whether marketing should have special social responsibilities</td></tr>
</table>

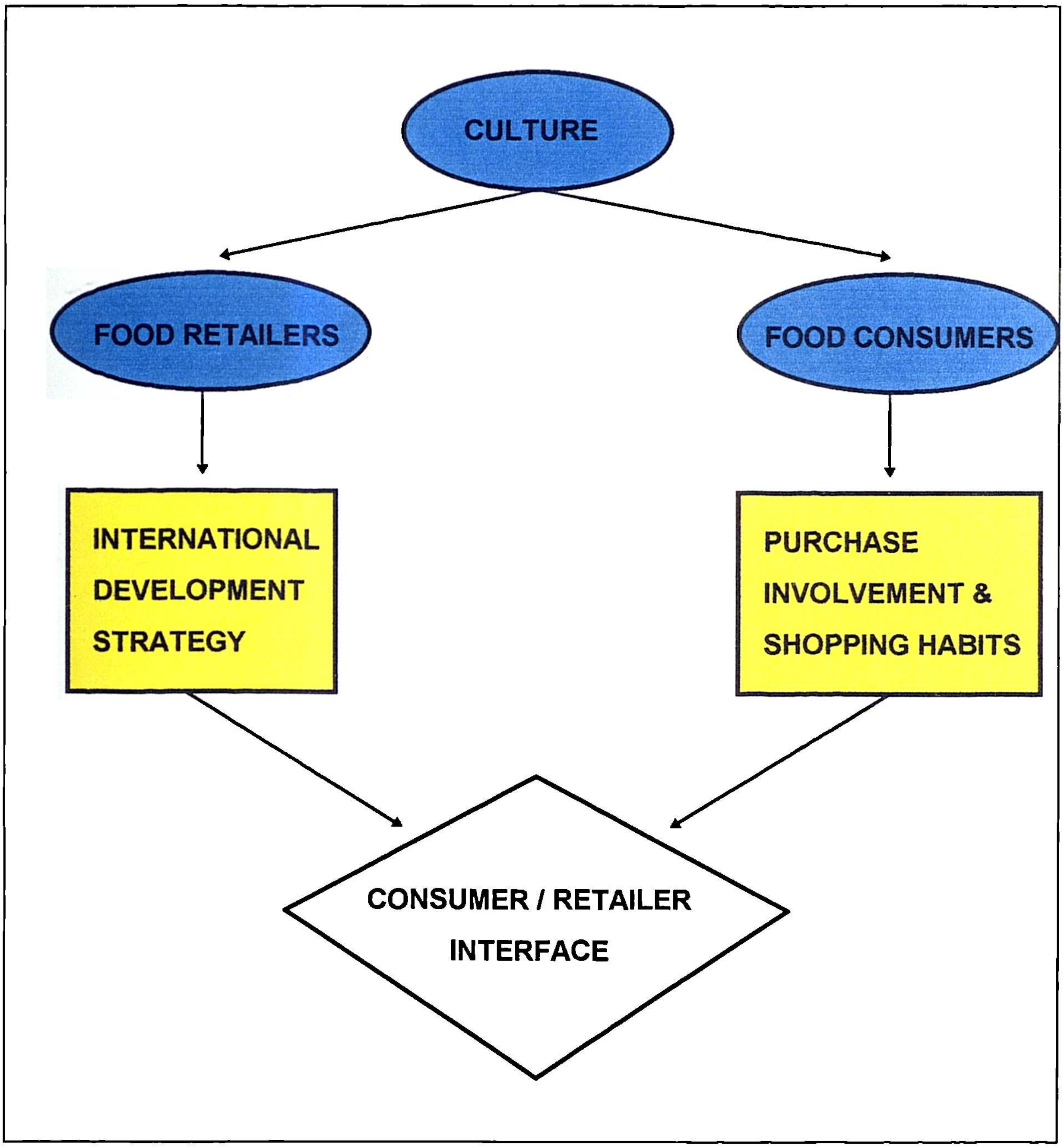
Source: Hunt, 1991

1.4 Summary of the Research Domain

By use of the concept of product purchase involvement, consumer choice criteria and the relevance of food products to consumer needs and values in different national markets can be assessed. Such information, along with data on consumption patterns can provide an insight into the buying behaviours of different groups of people. This in turn, may aid international marketing strategy formulation by contributing to, for example, identifying products which might possibly be promoted with similar or standardised efforts. The key areas of investigation have been applied into a framework to structure the research and enable an overview of the domain as a whole (Figure 1.4). Research encompasses four main issues to tackle the research problem identified:

- the structure and international development strategies of food retailers by culture/country;
- the effect of culture on consumer purchase involvement with food;
- the interface of retail stores and food shoppers in terms of whether purchase criteria and the level of retailer fascia standardisation is complementary; and,
- the significance of involvement as a mediating variable within the consumer choice process.

Figure 1.4 Problem Definition Framework



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CHAPTER 2

SELECTED OPERATIONS OF THE EU FOOD SYSTEM

2.0 Introduction

The growth in the value and volume of cross-border mergers and acquisitions in the retail sector is tangible evidence of the development of an international retailing sector prompted by the relative mobility of retail capital and trading formats (Humphries and Samways, 1993). These trends are further substantiated by organic international growth by the likes of IKEA, Marks and Spencer, Virgin and Benetton. Compared with production, however, the internationalisation of retailing remains partial and marginal. The movement towards retail internationalisation has, however, accelerated and grown in scale. In 1992, there were more than 1,321 international establishments in the European Union (EU) compared with 120 in 1970 (Tordjman, 1995). The internationalisation of food retailers is of particular interest as they are the retail leaders in all countries of the EU (with the exception of Spain and Italy), and hold the top 15 positions in size of turnover in European retailing (Tordjman, 1995).

As detailed in Chapter 1, a key factor which will in part determine the effectiveness and success of the internationalisation of retailing is believed to be the behaviour of the consumer (Bareham, 1995; Fisher, 1990). Retailers are required, if they are to be successful, to respond to the culture of their customers. Culture is of particular significance with any move toward multi-store operations. Food retailing may be subject to the influence of consumer culture to a greater extent than other forms of retailing; food culture changes slowly (Fisher, 1990; Mennell et al, 1992; Dawson, 1994; Tordjman, 1995) and the purchase of food may be seen as particularly ethnocentric. Cultural and cross-national consumer similarities and differences are, therefore, of key importance to investigate in the environment of food retail internationalisation.

The extent of internationalisation by retailers is the inception of the research rationale, in that the process of internationalisation requires an understanding of consumer behaviour across frontiers. To place consumer research in context, therefore, this chapter outlines the trends and motivations for food retailer internationalisation and discusses the food retail structure and market of selected European countries.

The European Union has a population of approximately 328 million people (Cole, 1996), eight per cent of the world total, and together with its economic power, the geographical region is of extreme significance to international marketers. Of the fifteen EU countries, France, Italy, Spain, Germany and the UK have been selected for study primarily because of their distinct cultural and geographical representativeness, but also because consumer expenditure on food is the greatest in these countries and thus is of most concern to food retailers (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Consumer Expenditure on Food ($)

EU Country	Total $ Billion 1992
Belgium	23.5
Denmark	11.3
France	120.9
Germany	157.6
Greece	15.0
Ireland	5.4
Italy	155.9
Luxembourg	0.9
Netherlands	27.7
Portugal	16.5
Spain	58.8
United Kingdom	80.2

Source: European Marketing Data And Statistics, 1994

Note: Sweden, Austria and Finland joined the EU in January 1995 and hence data are not available for these countries.

The objective of the thesis is not to provide a study of the food retail industry in detail, but to identify the influences of culture on the food consumer. This chapter, therefore, provides an industry background to acknowledge the environment in which the food consumer operates. Whilst retail structure, market and internationalisation trends are reviewed for the European Union as a whole and within the selected five countries specifically, exactly comparable statistics are not detailed. Discrepancies occur due to differences in national data collection methods and also because of gaps in current published data. These discrepancies are recognised as limitations to the review.

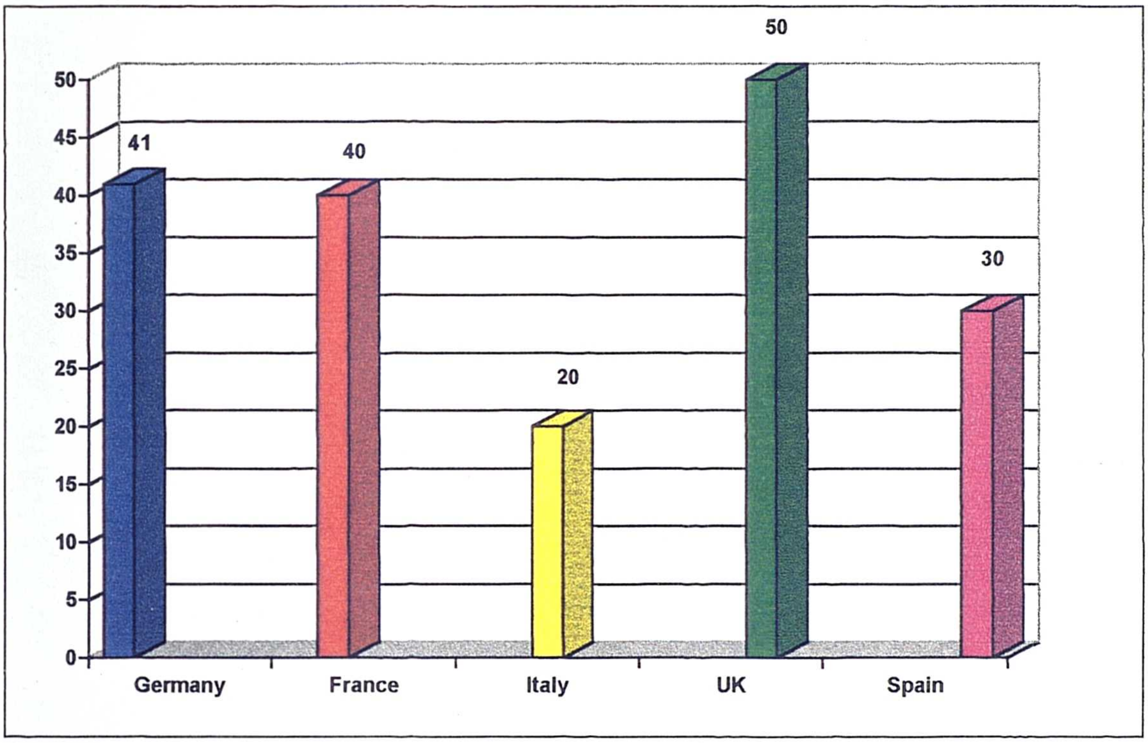
2.1 An Overview of the EU Food Retail Structure

The consumer choice process comes into practice at the point of sale. Cross-national retail structures are pertinent to examine, therefore, as recognition of the environment in which consumer behaviour takes place. A review of key developments in EU food retailing is detailed along with data on specific retail structures in each of the five EU countries under study.

Food retailing in Europe has undergone a profound transformation over the last 20 years. Since 1970, there has been a loss of 400,000 grocery stores. This trend is most advanced in the north of Europe: in 1990 there was one grocery store per 1,000 inhabitants in the UK, and three in Italy, compared with 2.2 and 3.7 respectively in 1970 (Tordjman, 1995). On the other hand, the amount of sales space devoted to food products has vastly increased, rising from eight to 18 million square metres in France between 1966 and 1990, and from 5.2 million square metres to 21.5 million square metres in Germany between 1961 and 1990. This growth in sales area is common all over Europe and applies particularly to hypermarkets and supermarkets (over 30 per cent between 1986 and 1990).

Thus, the trend towards fewer but larger food stores is evident and can be seen as a reflection of both changing lifestyle patterns (e.g. working women and one-stop shopping) and the increasing concentration of the food retail industry (Figure 2.1). The retail structure of a country is an important consideration for internationally developing retailers, and, as it can be argued that retailers impose food preferences onto the consumer, it may also provide an alternative explanation of purchase behaviour.

Figure 2.1 Food Market Share of Top Five Retailers in 1991 (%)



Source: adapted from Tordjman, 1995

Despite the trend of fewer but larger stores across the EU, the retail structure remains nationally fragmented. The EU's 15 national markets in food retail still show great variety, obviously in terms of absolute size, but also in average sales, numbers and types of outlet, concentration in particular regions and sub-markets. Table 2.2 provides basic comparative data for 1994.

Table 2.2 Comparative Markets of EU Food Retailers (1994)

Country	Total Sales (ECU bn)	Average Household Expenditure (ECU)	Total Outlets (000s)	Average Turnover Per Outlet ($000s)
France	142.6	5,478	57.4	2,936
Germany *	111.4	5,608	78.2	2,742
Italy **	92.4	415	253.7	391
Spain	39.2	3,108	81.1	572
UK	77.5	3,217	75.1	1,225

* Includes former East Germany and Aldi

** Fixed food outlets only (26,522 mobile retailers in 1994)

Source: adapted from Euromonitor Market Direction, 1995

French Food Retailing

In line with the EU as a whole, retail concentration in French food and non-food sectors is increasing. Lower consumer spending and planning restrictions, along with space saturation in the food sector, are stimulating a succession of mergers, acquisitions and foreign expansion in France. There is still not, however, the same degree of concentration as that found in many other northern European countries such as Britain and Germany. In France, the top five retailers control 40 per cent of the grocery market. Whilst this figure is not dissimilar from concentration levels elsewhere, it is important to note that, of these retail groups, two (LeClerc and Intermarche) are groups of independent retailers and therefore any concentration which may exist is necessarily fragile.

Hypermarkets remain the dominant force in the French grocery retail sector, with a market share of 28 per cent of the total food market (Table 2.3). According to figures published by INSEE (the French National Statistics Office), hypermarket and supermarket chains increased their market share to 55.6 per cent of food sales in 1992 from 53.6 per cent in 1991. Large French hypermarkets offer a breadth of both food and non-food merchandise on selling areas often exceeding 120,000 square metres. It is not unusual for one single French hypermarket to achieve sales of well over Fr1.26bn (£150m). Food retail space provision per capita in France is more than twice that in the UK, but produces a return or one to two per cent net profit before tax compared to the typical eight per cent achieved by UK grocery retailers (Schwarz, 1993). The French retail industry, therefore, is increasing in concentration in terms of numbers of stores and retail players. Main competitors, however, are still differentiated regionally in that a large proportion of the major players are groups of independent retailers with local managers and regionally-adapted trading operations. Consequently, although the trend in France is to fewer and larger stores, the retail structure does not exhibit the same degree of standardisation as, for example, the UK.

Table 2.3 Market Share of Hypermarkets and Supermarkets in France

Type of Outlet	No. of Stores	% of Food Sales
Hypermarkets	945	27.7
Supermarkets	7,343	27.9
Total	8,288	55.6

Source: IGD, 1992d

Spanish Food Retailing

Food retailing in Spain is highly fragmented and to a great degree regionally biased. The grocery chains are characterised by the lack of real national groups; none can be said to have truly national coverage, although mergers and acquisitions are playing their role in uniting regional chains to form more extensive groups. A large proportion (70 per cent) of food retailing is controlled by independent family businesses, producing a fragmented industry dominated by small stores. Table 2.4 shows that a large number of businesses (383) operate only one outlet indicating the strong presence of independent retailers in the Spanish food sector.

Although the retail structure in Spain is fragmented, the EU trend of concentration is evident. The number of traditional grocery stores has decreased, from 94,230 in 1986 to 73,718 in 1990. Conversely, the number of large supermarkets climbed from 4,146 in 1986 to 5,817 in 1990, while the 89 hypermarkets in 1986 had grown to 135 in 1990 (European Retail, 1992). The convergence of Spain with the EU trend to concentration is largely due to the internationalisation of retailers from other EU countries, particularly France.

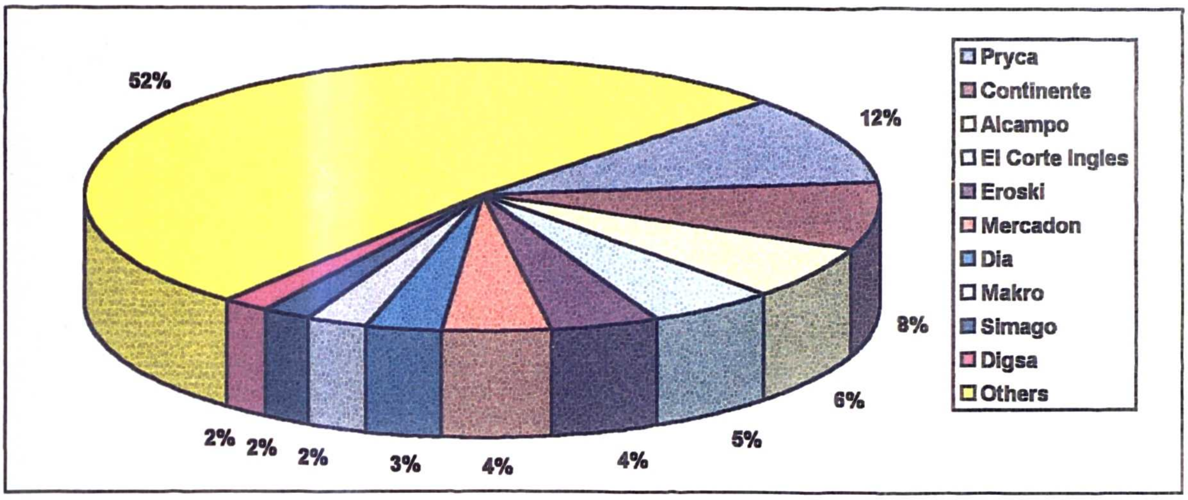
The single major driving force in the revolution in the Spanish grocery trade is the rapid development of hypermarkets, a retail formula imported from France. In the food sector, hypermarkets have increased their market share from 18 per cent in 1988 to 26 per cent in 1992. The trend is continuing given the vast expansion programmes of major hypermarket chains in Spain. The independent retailers control 70 per cent of the number of stores in Spain. The leading chains, however, have 75 per cent of the total one million square metres of sales space and 48 per cent of total sales (Figure 2.2).

Table 2.4 Spanish Grocery Retail Businesses by Number of Outlets, 1990

Number of Outlets	Number of Businesses
1	383
2	261
3	188
4	135
5	99
6	46
7	49
8	34
9	29
10	19
11	24
12	22
13	10
14	17
15	6
16	6
17	4
18	4
19	6
20	7
21+	69

Source: IGD, 1992b

Figure 2.2 Market Share of Spanish Grocery Retailing Companies (1991)



Source: adapted from IGD, 1992b

German Food Retailing

The German retail market is the largest in Europe and the third largest in the world, surpassed only by the US and Japan. The grocery trade market in 1991 amounted to a volume of 216 billion Dm. The former West German market is both saturated and complicated with the vast majority of grocery companies having diversified into several fascias, formats and non-food areas, in order to provide vehicles for corporate growth. This saturation has also meant an increasing propensity towards internationalisation; for example, Tengelmann's interest in A&P in the US or Aldi's expansion into other countries in Europe and the US. The unification of Germany has shown a concentration of West German companies into the former East Germany. Vertical integration within firms is also apparent, for example Lidl and Schwarz operate manufacturing companies, wholesalers and retailers.

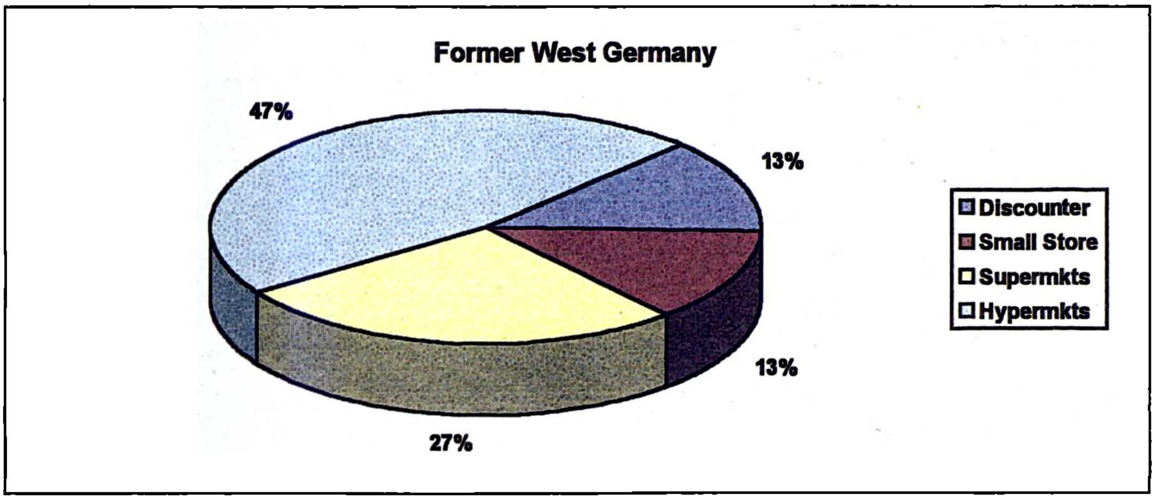
A major development within German retailing in the past ten years has been the rapid growth of the largest firms. In 1982, the ten largest retailers between them recorded sales of some DM80 billion, within ten years this figure had almost tripled to DM220 billion. In the same period, total retail sales grew by only 65 per cent (European Retail, 1993). Discounters play a major role in former West Germany accounting for 13 per cent of the market, on a par with small stores (under 400 square metres) but beaten by both supermarkets and hypermarkets. Table 2.5 shows the rate of growth in sales of German hypermarkets compared with other main forms of retail. In contrast, the retail structure in former East Germany remains fragmented. Small stores dominate the market with 53 per cent, supermarkets and hypermarkets are responsible for 44 per cent of the remainder and the discounters only have a 3 per cent market share (Figure 2.3).

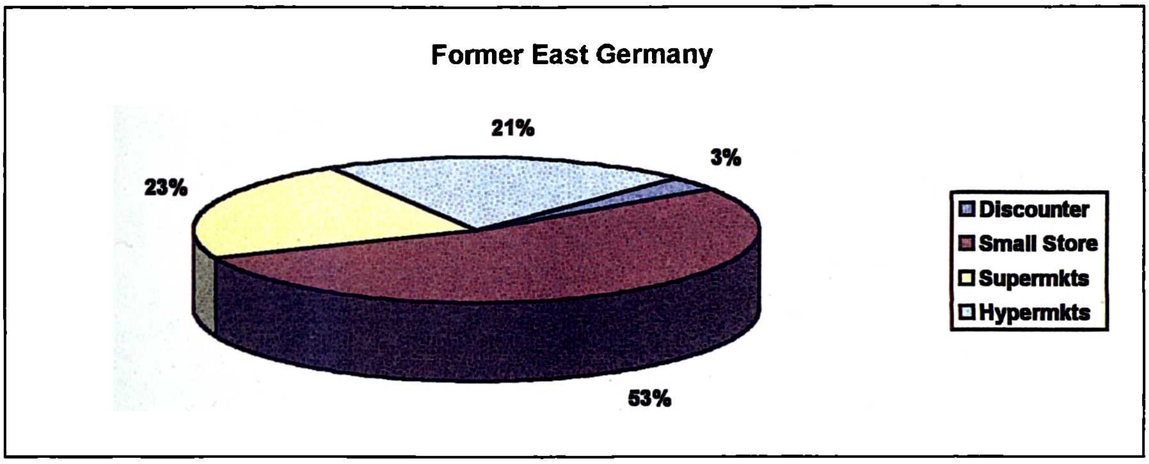
Table 2.5 German Retail Sales (DM billion) and Growth (%) by Format

Retail Formulae	1992	Growth from 1980-1992 (%)	Growth from 1990-1992 (%)
Hypermarkets	36.8	142.11	12.88
Dept. Stores	32.9	9.30	2.49
Specialist Food	64.9	32.18	1.37
Other Specialist	395.7	103.24	11.28
Mail Order	36.3	59.91	23.47
Supermarkets	103.1	89.17	2.69

Source: IGD, 1992c

Figure 2.3 Comparison of West Versus East German Retail Structure Prior to Reunification, 1990 (Market Share of Turnover in %)





Source: adapted from IGD, 1992c

UK Food Retailing

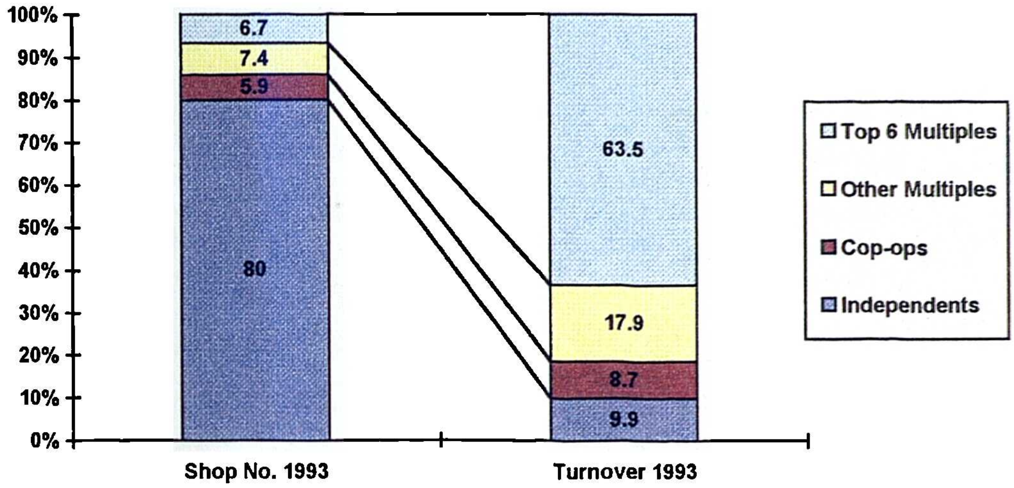
UK food retailing has also been characterised by a shift towards large scale operations, which have been the driving force behind sales growth. The major grocery companies have achieved their dominant position through acquisition or organic development strategies which have rapidly increased their national or regional store portfolio coverage. Table 2.6 provides an outline of the UK grocery trade. Food retailing is becoming increasingly concentrated amongst a small number of multiple store operators. In 1991, the top five food retailers: Asda, Safeway, Sainsbury, Somerfield and Tesco accounted for 50 per cent of the market in terms of turnover. This percentage increased to over 60 per cent of the market by 1993, although this accounts for only 6.7 per cent of the market in terms of shop numbers (Figure 2.4). The UK exhibits the greatest concentration of retail players competing for turnover.

Table 2.6 Market Shares of UK Food Multiples 1990

Company	% of All Grocery Outlet Sales
Sainsbury	16.8
Tesco	13.1
Gateway	10.4
Argyll	9.5
Asda	8.5
Marks & Spencer	5.1
Kwik Save	2.8
Waitrose	2.3
Morrison	1.9
Savacentre	0.9
Iceland	1.6
Wm Low	0.9
Others, include Co-op	26.2

Source: Lowe, 1992

Figure 2.4 The UK Grocery Trade, 1993



Source: Nielsen Grocery Service, 1996

Definitions:

Grocer; a retail outlet with 20% or more of its turnover in groceries and/or provisions and not having a larger proportion of turnover in any other commodity unless it is one or a combination of the following: off-licence trade, bakery goods, tobacco (if less than 70% of sales).

Multiple: A grocer belonging to a group of ten or more retail shops operated under common ownership.

Top Multiples: Asda, Iceland, Safeway, Sainsbury, Somerfield and Tesco

Co-operative: A grocer owned and operated by a co-operative society.

Italian Food Retailing

The number of food retailers has been declining steadily in Italy, reflecting the Europe-wide trend to fewer but larger food stores. This trend has not developed to the same extent as other European countries, the number of outlets per inhabitant in Italy is one for every 66 persons, compared with ratios of 1:179 and 1:132 in France and Germany (IGD, 1992a). The largest sector of retailers is the independent outlets which account for almost half of total retail sales. These are commonly specialist shops of family run businesses supplied by the wholesale sector or directly from the manufacturers. Retail chains account for 20 per cent of the market and buying groups and voluntary chains make up the rest of the trade. Table 2.7 details the turnover and number of outlets of the five largest retail chains. Italy possesses the least developed retail structure in terms of retail concentration, diversification, and internationalisation. It is still very much a traditional industry sector although there are disparities between southern and northern Italy. Northern Italy exhibits a greater convergence with the EU than the south due to a higher level of economic development.

Table 2.7 Top Five Italian Food Retail Chains, 1990

Retailer	Turnover (m. lira)	Principal Fascias	No. of Outlets
The Rinascente Group	4182	Rinascente, Upim, Citta Mercato, Sma, La Gross, Bricocenter, Croff, Trony	748
The Standa Group	3754	Standa, Euromercato	542
G.S.	2550	G.S., Conti, Supersconto, ExtraMarket	215
Esselunga	2020	Esselunga	72
Gruppo PAM	1420	PAM, Meta, Silos, Panorama	166
Selefin	722	Coin, Oviesse	55

Source: IGD, 1992a

2.2 The EU Consumer Food Market

The food system of any country is a complex and dynamic process. For consumers, food is one of the most important product areas. For the food industry, it is of utmost importance to keep in touch with the consumers' expectations in order to match the needs and demands generated with the changing prerequisites and conditions of supply. An overview of the European food market in terms of eating habits and consumer profiles provides a background to the study of cross-cultural consumer behaviour. In addition, it provides an environment in which to address the concerns and opportunities of food retail internationalisation. This section, therefore, details a comparative outline of European consumers' eating habits and shopper profiles.

Consumer lifestyles are converging. Specifically, the growing number of working women, the rise in single person households, the breakdown of formal eating patterns and the concern with health and diet are common across the EU, but are evident in varying quantities. Despite this trend, the EU remains marked by differences in consumer behaviour. For example, consumption, shopping behaviour, and food expenditure.

Consumption

Consumption differs noticeably in northern and southern Europe. For example, consumption of potatoes and fatty products are higher in the north, whilst in the south, consumption of cereals and vegetable oil are higher. The French consume more kilograms per inhabitant of red meat than Spain, Italy, Germany or the UK. In contrast, Italy and the UK consume below the regional average of 62.6 kilograms per inhabitant (Table 2.8). The consumption of frozen foods exhibits particular disparities, with Italy consuming the least, and the UK the most. Both differing lifestyles and differing penetration levels of frozen products may explain the discrepancy in demand (i.e. the demand for convenience food is greater in the UK as there are more working women and frozen products have both greater availability and sophistication).

Table 2.8 Consumption of Staple Food Products Across the EU, 1992

Kg per inhabitant	France	Germany	Italy	Spain	UK	Regional Average
Red Meat	72.6	67.3	60	68	49.1	62.6
Poultry	22.6	13.1	19.2	23.1	18.1	18.4
Vegetables	97.7	114.5	152.7	124	81.7	125.2
Fruit	79.5	70.4	108.1	105.9	30	74.6
Cheese	16.2	12.6	16.4	5.5	5.9	11.9
Yoghurt	18.4	9.6	22.1	9.6	4.9	9.5
Frozen Foods	16.4	20.8	4.9	14.8	24.1	16.1
Bread	68.3	55.6	67	56.8	47.1	55.8
Coffee	3.2	8.5	2.9	1.6	1	4.0

Source: derived from European Marketing Data and Statistics, 1994

Shopping Behaviour

Shopping behaviour can also be contrasted across the EU. When choosing which shop to frequent, the French consumer decides according to price, the British according to range and choice, and the German according to proximity (Tordjman, 1995). Furthermore, consumer preferences diverge. For example, in Spain, branded products and fresh food are preferred, compared to own-label products and frozen food in Britain (Food Manufacture, 1992). Differences in preferences, however, may be a consequence of retailer stratagem rather than cross-cultural consumer discrepancies.

Expenditure on Food

Negative income elasticity for food products are common across the EU (Bareham, 1995). Nevertheless, although France has a higher level of total household income than Spain and Italy, food expenditure as a percentage of total household expenditure is significantly higher in France reflecting the importance of food to the consumer (Table 2.9).

Table 2.9 EU Expenditure on Food as a Percentage of Total Expenditure, 1992

UK	Germany	Spain	Italy	France
11%	14%	17%	18%	19%

Source: adapted from European Marketing Intelligence, 1994 a,b,c,d

In addition to national disparities in food expenditure, regional differences are also evident. For example, the regions in Spain are very distinct from each other, historically, geographically and culturally. This strong regionality is reflected in the political system. Each of the 17 communities has its own Parliament and executive with the power to issue laws which are applicable only to that particular region. Regionalism has a major impact on retailing in that consumers will support products as well as retailers with strong regional identities. An example of this is the popularity of Eroski Co-op in the Basque region. There are also significant regional differences in consumer spending. Cataluna, Navarra and Madrid spend the most, while Extremadura, in South West Spain, spends just 73 per cent of the average across the country (Ministerio de Agricultura Pesca Y Alimentacion, 1991). Variations in consumer expenditure impact on retail development, and the distribution of retail outlets, therefore, are also regionally diverse.

Italy spends a relatively high proportion of total household expenditure on food (18 per cent in 1992) in comparison to other EU countries (European Marketing Intelligence, 1994d). The average monthly expenditure of households, however, shows enormous disparities across the different areas of Italy. In 1991, monthly expenditure in the north of Italy was 35.7 per cent higher than that of the south, Sicily and Sardinia, and 8.3 per cent higher than the central area of Italy. These disparities reflect the economic division between northern and southern Italy. This economic division is also reflected in consumption habits. Northern Italians generally consume more frozen and processed foods than elsewhere in Italy. This is because the lifestyle of the northern Italian is suited to convenience shopping and eating habits. In the South, tradition and lower incomes mean less processed food is consumed. Additionally, the rural nature of the South means that fresh foods are more readily available. It is also the tradition of Southern families for the wife to remain at home to prepare meals for the family (Table 2.10).

Table 2.10 Italian Average Monthly Per Capita Food Expenditure, 1992

Product Grouping	North:		Centre:		South:	
	L000	%	L000	%	L000	%
Bread & Cereals	39	15	37	14	36	15
Meat	75	29	86	31	65	28
Fish	12	5	19	7	21	9
Milk, Eggs & Cheese	35	13	33	12	29	12
Oils & Fat	16	6	20	7	17	7
Fruit & Vegetables	39	15	41	15	32	14
Coffee, Tea & Other Foods	19	7	17	6	16	7
Beverages	27	10	21	8	19	8
TOTAL	262	100	274	100	235	100

Source: IGD, 1992a

2.3 The Internationalising Retailer

The internationalisation of food retailing is increasing. In 1990, the CIES, the principal trade body for food retailers and manufacturers world-wide, said:

> "Retailers are sizing up the opportunities which the burgeoning single market might bring. Some are expanding abroad, or furthering their European expansion ... a growing number of international buying groups have been constituted." (European Retail, 1993).

The observation has proven true. The less restrictive market for cross-border mergers and acquisitions has seen the total volume of cross-border merger and acquisition activity increase consistently within the EU. Many of Europe's leading retailers have sought actively to exploit new growth opportunities in some of the less developed markets of the community, for example Italy and Spain. Overlying the now substantial cross-border merger and acquisition activity in European retailing is the organic growth into new markets, within and beyond Western Europe, of some of the leading names in European food retailing (Coopers and Lybrand, 1993).

The disparities between European consumers and also between EU retail trade structures, as evidenced earlier in the chapter, are of significance to the internationalising retail decision-maker. The identification of consumer differences and similarities to create target markets may provide more accurate, efficient and profitable information for international marketing strategy. The evolution of marketing strategy through these means needs to have, as a base to develop from, an understanding of what activities and strategies retailers are currently implementing. This section, therefore, details the theoretical debate between globalisation and customisation marketing strategies, the motivations to internationalise and the possible international entry strategies to employ. The international activities of each selected EU country are then summarised.

International Marketing

As internationalisation of business becomes more diverse and wide spread, two opposing international marketing philosophies have emerged: globalisation and localisation (Costa and Bammossy, 1995; Usunier, 1996). On the one hand, there is evidence of the globalisation of economies through the transfer of capital, products, technology and know-how and, on the other hand, there is the increase in the presence of ethnic minorities and nationalism which is tending to differentiate economies and cultures.

'Globalisation of markets' (Levitt, 1983) is an expression which relates to:

- demand becoming increasingly universal (tastes, preferences and price-mindedness);
- supply becoming increasingly universal - both products and services becoming more standardised, and competition within industries reaching a world-wide scale; and,
- marketing strategy becoming increasingly universal - firms, mainly MNCs, try to design their marketing policies and control systems appropriately, so as to remain winners in the global competition of global products for global consumers (Usunier, 1996).

According to Levitt (1983), globalisation occurs when:

> "the global corporation operates with resolute constancy - at low relative cost - as if the entire world (or major regions of it) were a single entity; it sells the same things in the same way everywhere."

The proponents of globalisation maintain that in a rapidly internationalising world, the key component of success is the development of globally recognised products and brand images. Companies such as Coca-Cola and MacDonalds have carried out this philosophy of efficiency successfully.

From an international marketing point of view, which favours looking at consumers and marketing policies across countries, the idea of globalisation has been strongly challenged, for example, Wind (1986) states it is the 'myth of globalisation'. Wind (1986) argues against globalisation on the basis of three factors: standardised products are overdesigned for some countries and underdesigned for others; already existing company-country networks cannot be undermined; and, the standardisation activity dampens the entrepreneurial spirit.

Little empirical evidence has been found for the world-wide homogenisation of tastes and the preferences of a 'world consumer'. Those interested in the influence of culture on consumer behaviour and the implementation of marketing (e.g. Dubois, 1987) have found arguments in favour of cultural resistance to the globalisation process. Many have questioned the Levitt thesis, maintaining that a localising strategy is superior. Localising implies differentiation of products depending on the idiosyncrasies of major identifiable world market segments. Based upon the general concept of polycentrism (Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter, 1973), the localisation philosophy maintains that the needs of international markets are too culturally diverse to be standardised. Each market must be dealt with according to its own peculiarities, making international differentiation of products necessary. Natural entry barriers related to culture seem to remain particularly important in specific industries (e.g. food, beverages, advertising, printing and publishing). Cultural barriers may be of particular relevance, therefore, to the food industry as evidenced by differences in the European food market detailed previously.

Competition, however, is globalising (Porter, 1986; GATT, 1986; Ludlow, 1990; Focus, 1995) and a major theme in international business is the increasing use of global strategies. Global strategies involve the world-wide integration of strategy formulation and implementation, in contrast to a multi-domestic (or multi-local) approach that provides for independent development and implementation of strategies by country or regional units (Hout et al, 1982; Prahalad and Doz, 1987; Yip, 1989). A key dimension to classifying international operations is the extent to which managerial decision making is centralised at a head office in the home country or is delegated to host country operations. The centralisation aspect of management (Rugman, 1981) is related partly to whether the retail operations are virtually the same from country to country (global strategy), or whether the shops reflect the regional and national society in which they operate (localised strategy).

Proponents of localisation strategy acknowledge that the diverse needs of international markets can be satisfied more successfully by flexible international businesses. On the other hand, due to economies of scale with globalisation, the price can be made so attractive that efficiency can prevail over effectiveness (Porter, 1986). Even if both strategies are theoretically viable, these points of view appear to be too extreme to be useful to the majority of marketers. There exists, in reality, a continuum between the extremes of one global identity and a locally tailored identity. A compromise position would call for multinational companies to design global products and to market them in a modified manner according to the different needs of international markets. In other words, be global, act local (e.g. Wind, 1986; Huszagh et al, 1986).

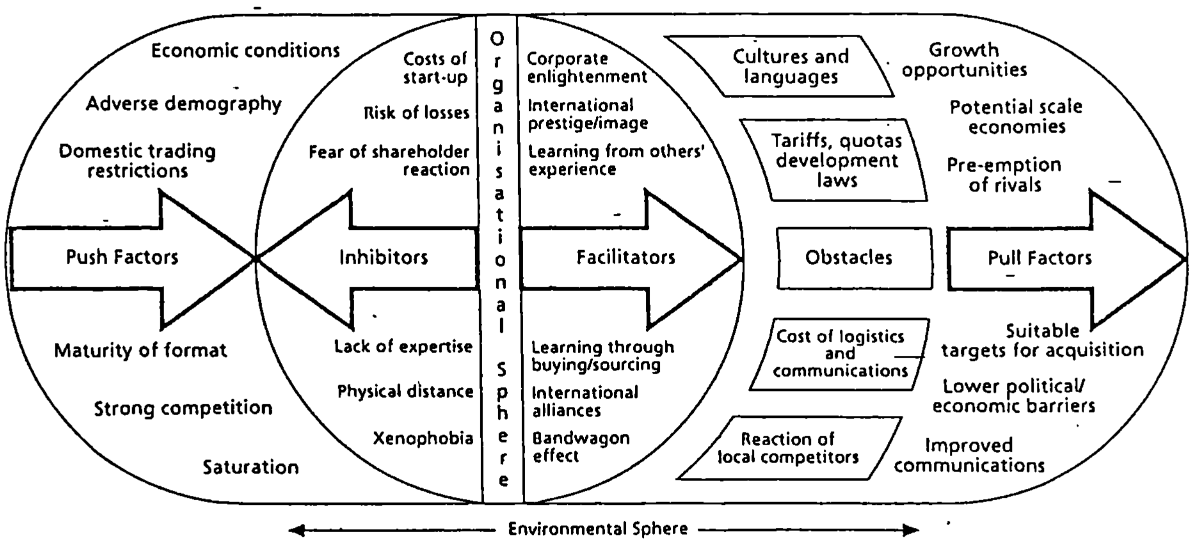
Motivations for Internationalisation

A review of the factors that have pushed, pulled or in some way facilitated retail internationalisation is relevant in the light of the increasing importance of food retail internationalisation. Figure 2.5 summarises the complex network of forces and motivations of internationalisation. Empirical studies (Dawson, 1994; Burt, 1991; Laulajainen, 1991; 1987; Treadgold, 1991; Tordjman and Dionisio, 1989; Alexander, 1990; Salmon and Tordjman, 1989; Treadgold and Davies, 1988) provide many reasons for the establishment of foreign retail operations. These include:

- perceived current or imminent market saturation in the home market, making it more expensive to gain market share;
- limits placed on domestic growth in the home country by public policy controlling new store development or limiting further growth in market share of a firm;
- presence of an unexploited market or growth market in the host country;
- higher profits (net margin or return on investment) obtained in the host country because of differences in competitive and/or cost structures;
- the spreading of risk across several, possibly unrelated, markets;
- use of surplus capital or the gaining of access to new capital sources at lower cost than in the home country;
- entrepreneurial vision and exportable retail 'know-how';
- an opportunity to get access to new management ideas or technology which can then be transferred to the home country;
- consolidation of buying power within the firm or through joint-buying arrangements;
- encouragement by major manufacturers-suppliers wishing to enter new markets in which they currently have limited presence;
- removal of barriers to entry;
- following existing customers abroad;

- the lowering of transport costs, the improvement of information systems, and the opening of frontiers, which have facilitated the exportation of sales formats and capital;
- the existence of international niche markets of customers with similar tastes in transcultural goods; and,
- the will to increase power over international manufacturers in terms of both sales and negotiation.

Figure 2.5 The Driving Forces of Internationalisation



Source: McGoldrick and Davies, 1995, p.4

International Entry Strategies

The investigation of consumer similarities and differences can identify target markets and thus aid marketing strategy. Once the retailer has identified the target market, internationalisation may be initiated through a number of alternative entry strategies. The actual mechanisms may be summarised as:

1. internal expansion in which a company opens individual shops using in-company resources;
2. merger or takeover with acquisition of control over a firm in the host country;
3. franchise type agreements in which the franchisee in the host country use the ideas of the franchisor based in the home country (Eroglu, 1992);
4. joint ventures which may take a variety of forms for the joint operation of retailing; and,
5. non-controlling, but operationally influential, interest in a firm in the host country taken by a firm in the home country (Clarke-Hill and Robinson, 1992).

Table 2.11 summarises the key advantages and disadvantages of the different development mechanisms. A retailer may use more than one method as they develop the scale and variety of international operations. Marks and Spencer, for example, acquired existing companies in Canada and USA; have developed through internal expansion in France and Belgium; initially undertook a joint venture in Spain; have used franchise type arrangements in Greece and initially in Hong Kong; entered Hungary with a joint venture before moving to a franchise type arrangement; and had a non-controlling interest in the company which sold, for several years, St. Michael products in Japan. The international expansion of Aldi illustrates a very different pattern with a dominant mode of internationalisation, that of internal expansion. The pattern of expansion is, first one of internal expansion or small scale takeover into nearby and culturally similar countries, then with a major acquisition in a non-European market and finally, expansion across a broad front involving small acquisitions and single store openings.

Table 2.11 Advantages and Disadvantages of Alternative Mechanisms To Establish Retail International Operations

Mechanism	Advantages	Disadvantages
Internal Expansion	Can be undertaken by any size of firm. Experimental openings are possible with modest risk & often modest cost. Ability to adapt operation with each subsequent opening. Exit is easy (at least in early stages). Allows rapid prototyping.	Takes a long time to establish a substantial presence. May be seen by top management as a minor diversion. Requirement to undertake full locational assessment. More difficult if host market is distant to home market. Requires firm to become familiar with host country property market. Lack of suitable sites in host country.
Merger or Takeover	Substantial market presence quickly achieved. Management already in place. Cash flow is immediate. Possibility of technology transfer to home firm. May be used as a way to obtain locations quickly for conversion to the chosen format.	Difficult to exit if mistake is made. Evaluation of takeover target is difficult and takes time. Suitable firms may not be available, Substantial top management commitment necessary. Management of acquired firm may be unsuited to new operation.
Franchise	Rapid expansion of presence possible. Low cost to franchisor. Marginal markets can be addressed. Local management may be used. Wide range of forms of agreement available. Use locally competitive marketing policy.	Possibly complex legal requirements. Necessary to recruit suitable franchisees. Difficult to control foreign franchisees. May become locked into an unsatisfactory relationship.
Joint-Ventures	Possible link with firm already in market. Help available to climb learning curve and to overcome non-tariff barriers. Possible to move later to either exit or make full entry into market. Share entry costs with other entrant.	Necessary to share benefits. Difficulties in finding a suitable partner.
Non-Controlling Interest	Find out about market with minimal risk. Allows those who know about market to manage the operation.	Passive position. Investment made over which little influence.

Source: Dawson, 1994

European Food Retail Internationalisation

The internationalisation of retailing in Europe most often occurs on a north/south and east/west basis. Thus, France, the UK and Germany represent two-thirds of international operations in Europe (Tordjman, 1995). The international development of retailers in each selected EU country is summarised in Table 2.12, international activities are then reviewed in greater detail.

Table 2.12 Pan European Expansion in Food Retailing, 1992

Base / Destination	**UK**	**Germany**	**France**	**Italy**	**Spain**
UK	\	Aldi Interspar	Carrefour	None	None
Germany	None	\	Promodes	None	None
France	Tesco Argyll Iceland	Aldi Lidl Norma Interspar	\	None	None
Italy	None	Lidl Markt Eurospar Tengelman	Promodes Auchan Carrefour	\	None
Spain	None	Spar	Carrefour Promodes Auchan Docks de France Intermarche Hipercor Leclerc	None	\

Derived from: Humphries and Samways (1993); IGD (1992a,b,c,d)

French Retail Internationalisation

As a result of various restrictions on domestic expansion such as the planning law - the Loi Royer, which restricts the size of retail developments outside of towns, many French retailers have seized the opportunity to continue growth by expanding abroad. As of January 1st, 1992, there were 189 hypermarkets around the world (outside of France) in which French retailers were participants of, or, more typically, in complete control. French retailers have long been recognised as among the most internationalisation-oriented of European retailers, as evidenced by the significant presence of French retailers in foreign countries (Table 2.13). Retailers are also developing into France. Foreign competitors came as a surprise to French retailers who have traditionally been immune to acquisition because of complex ownership structure and family management. At the end of 1992, Tesco acquired the small but profitable supermarket chain Catteau in the North of France. Catteau has about 90 stores in the North-Pas de Calais region, achieving a turnover of Fr2.94bn (£350m) and a net margin of about five per cent, well above the food sector average (Schwarz, 1993).

Table 2.13 French Hypermarkets Abroad 1.1.92

Country	Number	% of Total Foreign Presence
Spain	77	40.74
Germany	48	25.39
Brazil	24	12.70
Portugal	9	4.76
Italy	8	4.23
USA	8	4.23
Greece	5	2.65
Argentina	4	2.12
Taiwan	4	2.12
Gabon	1	0.53
Morocco	1	0.53
TOTAL	189	100.0

Source: IGD, 1992d

Spanish Retail Internationalisation

Foreign participation in retailing is a key characteristic of the Spanish market. The twenty seven companies listed in Table 2.14 represented some 1,260,000 million pesetas in 1990 from a total sales area of 1,503,696m^2 in 1,651 outlets. Of all foreign companies active in Spain, the French presence is most prevalent, controlling 10 per cent of food distribution with a sales area of 887,180m^2. Of the eleven countries in which French food retailers operate, 46 per cent of sales area is found in Spain. This is particularly evident in the hypermarket sector, where French companies control the three largest chains.

In 1973, Carrefour introduced the hypermarket format to Spain. Aided by geographical proximity and substantial capital reserves, the French have been the main initiators in this sector. Out of the top five Spanish retailers, three - Pryca, Continente and Alcampo - are almost entirely French-owned. Others in the top ten also lie in foreign hands. Galerias Preciados, for instance, is a subsidiary of the UK company Mountleigh, which comes under US management. The national retail industry flagship, El Corte Inglés, stands almost alone as a significant presence in the industry. Even this company, however, is wary of expanding beyond its borders, choosing instead to consolidate its strong distribution networks within Spain and diversifying into travel agency businesses.

Table 2.14 Groups in the Spanish Retail Trade with Majority Foreign Capital

Company	Parent	Parent's Home Country
Hipermercados Pyrca, S.A.	Carrefour	France
Continente, S.A	Promodes	France
Alcampo, S.A.	Auchan	France
Dia, S.A.	Promodes	France
Galerias Preciados, S.A.	Mountleigh	UK
Digsa, S.A.	Ashley Group	UK
Simago, S.A.	Dairy Farm	Hong Kong
Makro, S.A.	SHV International	CH
Supermarcados Sabeco, S.A.	Docks de France	France
Sagara, S.A.	Unigro	Netherlands
Match, S.A.	Louis Delhaize	Belgium
ITM Iberica, S.A.	Intermarche	France
Mantequerias Leonesas, S.A.	Asko	Denmark
Jumbo Comercial	Pao de Acucar	Portugal
Sdad, Hispanicade Desarrollo	Docks de France	France
Expresso Comercia	Portugues	Portugal
Erteco, S.A.	Pryca/Carrefour	France
Marks & Spencer	Marks & Spencer	UK

Source: IGD, 1992b

German Retail Internationalisation

German retail groups are very active internationally. All of the top retailers have extensive foreign interests, and activities in the former East Germany are almost universal among the top groups (Table 2.15). Two major food groups - Tengelmann and Metro - have more sales outside their home country than within it. Tengelmann's major foreign interest is in the US with the A&P chain. Metro has major operations in France, Italy, Austria and Denmark.

Table 2.15 Proportion of Non-Domestic Sales of Leading German Food Retailers, 1991

Company	%
Tengelmann	60
Rewe	0
Aldi	26
Metro	59
Edeka	0
Asko	0

Source: Lowe, 1992

UK Retail Internationalisation

The profitability differences between the UK and the rest of Europe have an impact on the merger and acquisition policy out of and into the UK. Due to the level of profit as a return on sales (Table 2.16) there has been considerable foreign investment into the UK. The most noticeable invasion of retailers into the UK has been in the discount food sector; including Aldi, Netto, Ed, Lidl and Schwarz, and Norma.

UK retailers have also started to expand internationally. Frozen food retailer Iceland bought the whole of the Lille-based Au Gel chain (France) in June 1993, after taking an initial 50 per cent stake in 1991. Iceland is also opening new stores under its own fascia, and converting Au Gel outlets as appropriate. Sainsbury's has not expanded into Continental Europe, although it has stores in both North and South America. Argyll has cross-shareholdings in Casino (France) and Ahold (Netherlands). Tesco has also started to expand into France with its first supermarket in Calais.

Table 2.16 Average Net Margins for Leading European Retailers, 1991

Country	Average %
UK	5.79
France	1.64
Germany	1.84

Source: adapted from Lowe, 1992

Italian Retail Internationalisation

The food industry in Italy has seen a number of foreign acquisitions, mergers and organic developments particularly from German and French food retailers. For example, the German company Tengelmann operates in Italy under the Superal fascia. The French company, Promodes, has extended its Continente fascia into Italy. Government interference and regional consumer disparities, however, hamper international development to some degree, and the majority of food retailers are local independents.

The top six food retailers in Italy are all Italian-owned and only operate in Italy and the Italian islands of Sicily and Sardinia. The only exception is Standa, Italy's largest retailer in terms of numbers of outlets, which is expanding modestly outside of Italy. In 1991, Standa opened a 600 square metre store in Malta in collaboration with the Gasen and Hill trading company, it also operates a number of stores in the former Yugoslavia in partnership with the company Istra.

2.4 Summary and Conclusion

The retail structure in all of the five EU countries investigated exhibit a number of common trends:

1. there is increasing concentration of retail players;
2. there is increasing concentration of fewer but larger stores;
3. there is increasing internationalisation of the companies; and,
4. there is increasing diversification of formats and operations.

These convergent trends are evident across the EU. Disparities occur, however, in the state of convergence in which the country exists. The UK is the most concentrated retail industry, in terms of market share per number of retail players. In contrast, Italy is fragmented, with political and economic barriers to future concentration (Figure 2.6). France is less concentrated in terms of retail groups; concentration is evident, however, in terms of fewer but larger stores. French independent operators commonly group together, e.g. LeClerc, and operate most successfully as large-scale hypermarkets (Table 2.7). French retailers are also the most active in the internationalisation of their operations. In contrast, retail developments out of Spain and Italy are *almost non-existent, as the retail systems* of these countries comprise *mainly* of either small-scale independents or large-scale foreign companies. Additionally, UK retailers have little participation in Europe outside the British Isles, apart from France. The hesitancy of UK firms to expand out of their home territory is mainly due to the high profit margins they have enjoyed in the UK (Figure 2.8). Finally, as competition in the retail industry increases, retailers are diversifying into other fascias and other food or non-food related businesses. This is most evident with German firms (Figure 2.9).

Figure 2.6 Degree of Concentration of EU Retail Players

Concentrated Retail Industry				Fragmented Retail Industry
UK	Germany	France	Spain	Italy

Figure 2.7 Number of Stores Per Inhabitant Across the EU

Fewer but larger stores				More but smaller stores
France	Germany	UK	Spain	Italy

Figure 2.8 Degree of Internationalisation of EU Retailers

High degree of internat.				Low degree of internat.
France	Germany	UK	Spain	Italy

Figure 2.9 Degree of Diversification by EU Retail Players

High degree of diversification				Low degree of diversification
Germany	France	UK	Spain	Italy

Despite the increasing commonalities in the retail structure of Europe, there are still significant differences which will take several years, if ever, to fade. Differences are due to differing lifestyles (e.g. the high proportion of home-working women in the south of Italy); differing legislation (e.g. the turbulent political system in Italy deters inward investment); and even historical differences. For example, the success of discounters in Germany is surprising considering the wealth of the consumer market. The discount format, however, was developed in the immediate post-war period when there was a demand for low-cost food stuffs. As the population became more affluent not only was the habit and value of discount purchasing ingrained in the psyche of the consumer, but also the neighbourhood location provided a type of convenience store, where shopping immediately after work was viable and thus gave an opportunity to circumvent the strict retailing laws which govern shopping hours.

Food retailers have implemented a number of different international development strategies based on the globalisation or localisation of the organisation. As evidenced in this chapter, there is considerable debate as to whether development strategies can be standardised to exploit economies of scale offered by harmonised markets or whether strategy should be tailored to individual cultures to take advantage of consumer differences. Levitt's (1983) arguments for standardisation are driven, to a large extent by the emergence of homogeneous cross-country market segments. Without such a trend, the economies of scale argument loses its major theoretical basis.

The emergence of a common European market, it has been argued, is resulting in the convergence of tastes and preferences within the nations in the EU (Quelch and Buzzell, 1989). There is substantial evidence, however, that even in Europe differences between consumers in separate national markets persist (e.g. Schlegelmilch et al, 1992). Cultural and cross-national consumer similarities and differences, therefore, are of key importance to investigate in the environment of food retail internationalisation, and the differences between and within countries with regards to retail structure and consumer markets detailed in this chapter provide the initial evidence for application to the issue of food retail internationalisation.

Initial evidence of discrepancies in cross-cultural consumer behaviour has been provided in this chapter. The definition of 'cultural' and 'culture', however, is fiercely debated in the literature. Chapter 3, therefore, conceptualises the term 'culture' for the purposes of research operationalisation.

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CHAPTER 3

DEFINING CULTURE

3.0 Introduction

Much of international marketing research has focused on marketing mix customisation versus standardisation (Aulakh and Kotabe, 1993). Yet, before one makes marketing mix decisions, consumer segments for international markets must be identified and developed. Since the international market, by definition, entails marketing to a variety of countries and cultures, marketing segmentation strategies need to address cultural differences.

Consumer behaviour is primarily a sociocultural phenomena (Costa and Bamossy, 1995). All individual identities are derived from interaction within a sociocultural environment (Douglas and Isherwood, 1979; McCracken, 1988; Sahlins, 1976). Culture, therefore, is as an environmental characteristic that influences consumer behaviour (e.g. Roth, 1995), and the many aspects of a culture affect differently the needs consumers satisfy through the acquisition and use of goods and services. Culture influences every aspect of marketing; the products people buy, the attributes they value, and the principles whose opinions they accept, are all culturally based choices. For example, different levels of awareness, knowledge, and familiarity with products in general, and specific brands may result in differential attitudes towards similar products (*Jain, 1989*). *The function of* marketing is to earn profits by satisfying human wants and needs. In order to understand and influence consumer wants and needs, marketers must understand their culture, especially in an international environment.

Applying the theoretical framework of culture to the research problem, it is argued that food consumption patterns are a cultural factor which develop out of a complex network of traditional food eating, historical-social traditions and even cultural agrarian traditions (Chapter 2). Thus, there are significant cultural differences in food purchase and consumption patterns which surely must be recognised and understood if international food retailers are to meet the needs of consumers of different cultural backgrounds and at the same time meet economies of scale and operations implicit in the development of large-scale retailing. Culture, therefore, is an important area to address for the international marketer. In order to determine how culture influences consumer behaviour, one must first identify what exactly 'culture' is and how to measure it.

3.1 Culture Defined

Cultural theorists adopt the view that individuals are products of their cultures and that as their cultures change, so do they (McCracken, 1988). Similarly, the social institutions and their organisational philosophies reflect the cultural values and norms of a given culture. Consequently, the 'post-modern' perspective of culture interprets it as what defines a human community, its individuals, and social organisations, along with other economic and political systems (Costa and Bamossy, 1995). Thus, the individual and the social organisation are but part of their culture, and culture is the overall system within which other systems are organised. In contrast, the 'modernist' perspective regards culture and economy as two separate spheres of activity, where culture is seen as part of a superstructure that is moulded by the conditions and relationships in the infrastructure (Marx, 1939; Parsons, 1968). Figure 3.1 contrasts the two views of culture, the modernist and post-modernist view.

The modernist perspective is not tenable, however, if culture is to be viewed realistically, that is, as a more encompassing system (Firat and Venkatesh, 1994). The term 'consumer' has come to define human experience (Ewen, 1990). In a marketing-driven environment, individuals experience practically all aspects of their lives as consumers. Not only has consumption come to signify all sorts of activity, but the consumers have become more and more consumed with the acts of consumption (Kling et al, 1991; Postman, 1985). The postmodern perspective of culture, therefore, is a more appropriate paradigm for interpreting culture in relation to marketing.

Figure 3.1 Relationship Between Culture and Economy

(I.) Pre-modern

No distinction between Culture & Economy. One implies the other

(II.) Modern

Culture & Economy are separate. Economy is accorded a superior status because of its relevance to the creation of 'productive' value.

ECONOMY → Production, Consumption
CULTURE → Consumption

(III.) Post-modern / post-industrial

New perspective on the relationship between Culture & Economy
Culture subsumes Economy

CULTURE ↓

Economy	Government	Ideology
Education	Family	Consumption
Institutions	Production	
Symbolic Systems		

Source: Costa and Bammossy, 1995 p.31

Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) uncovered 164 definitions of culture and classified them into six groups: descriptive, historical, psychological, structural, genetic and normative. Definitions range from nearly all inclusive approaches such as that by Herskovits (1955) who claimed that culture consists of the man-made part of the environment, to the somewhat more restrictive approach of Kroeber and Parsons (1958) who perceive culture as the:

> ".... transmitted and created content and pattern of values, ideas, and other symbolic meaningful systems as factors in the shaping of human behaviour and in the artefacts produced through behaviour" (pp.582-3).

The terms culture and society are frequently used interchangeably, but may be perceived as distinct. In simplest form, society *is made up of people; their culture is* the way they behave (Brown, 1963). In other words, a society is not a culture; it has a culture. Although each society has a culture, it does not follow that there are no cultural differences within a given society or that several different societies may not share, at least to a large extent, a common culture. As a geopolitical unit, for example, the US constitutes one society, yet, even if groups like the American Indians or the foreign born are excluded, there is still considerable variation in cultural patterns within continental US. On the other hand, it has been argued that the UK shares, to a large extent, a common culture with the US, yet it is a separate, well-defined society that forms an independent political unit (Usunier, 1996).

Culture has been defined as historically evolved values, attitudes and meanings which are learnt and shared by the members of a given community, and which influence their material and non-material way of life (Tayeb, 1992); and as

> "the configuration of learned behaviour and results of behaviour whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society" (Linton, 1945).

Members of the community acquire characteristics through different stages of the socialisation processes of their lives in institutions such as family, religion, formal education and the society as a whole. This is not to say that all members of a community think and behave in the same way or hold the same values and attitudes. There are, of course, variations even among people from the same culture. In other words, one can make the distinction between individual variation and the dominant general pattern in any society. There is also a recognisable whole, a discernible collection of values, attitudes and behaviours, which may differ from another recognisable whole in another place or time in significant ways (Tayeb, 1988). Although consumer behaviour is studied at an individual level for epistemological convenience, it is the collectives to which the consumers belong, therefore, that is of interest to marketers. When consumer behaviour is described, the cultural group is often used, either explicitly or implicitly, as the level of analysis - Britons, Scots, Indians, etc.

Individuals are products of their culture and their social groupings; they are conditioned by their sociocultural environment to act in certain manners (Douglas and Isherwood, 1979; McCracken, 1988). Thus, culture can also be perceived as a set of rules or standards shared by members of a society, which when acted upon by the members produce behaviour that falls within a range of variation the members consider proper and acceptable. *The boundaries of the social* collective within which this sharing takes place are problematic, so that it may make as much sense to refer to a class or regional culture as to a national culture. In other words, how are the borders of a culture defined? To what extent do the characteristics of cultural groups, relating to certain patterns of thought, belief or behaviour differentiate them from other cultural groups?

To operationalise culture for the purposes of investigating its effect on consumer behaviour, Triandis' (1972) definition has been adopted:

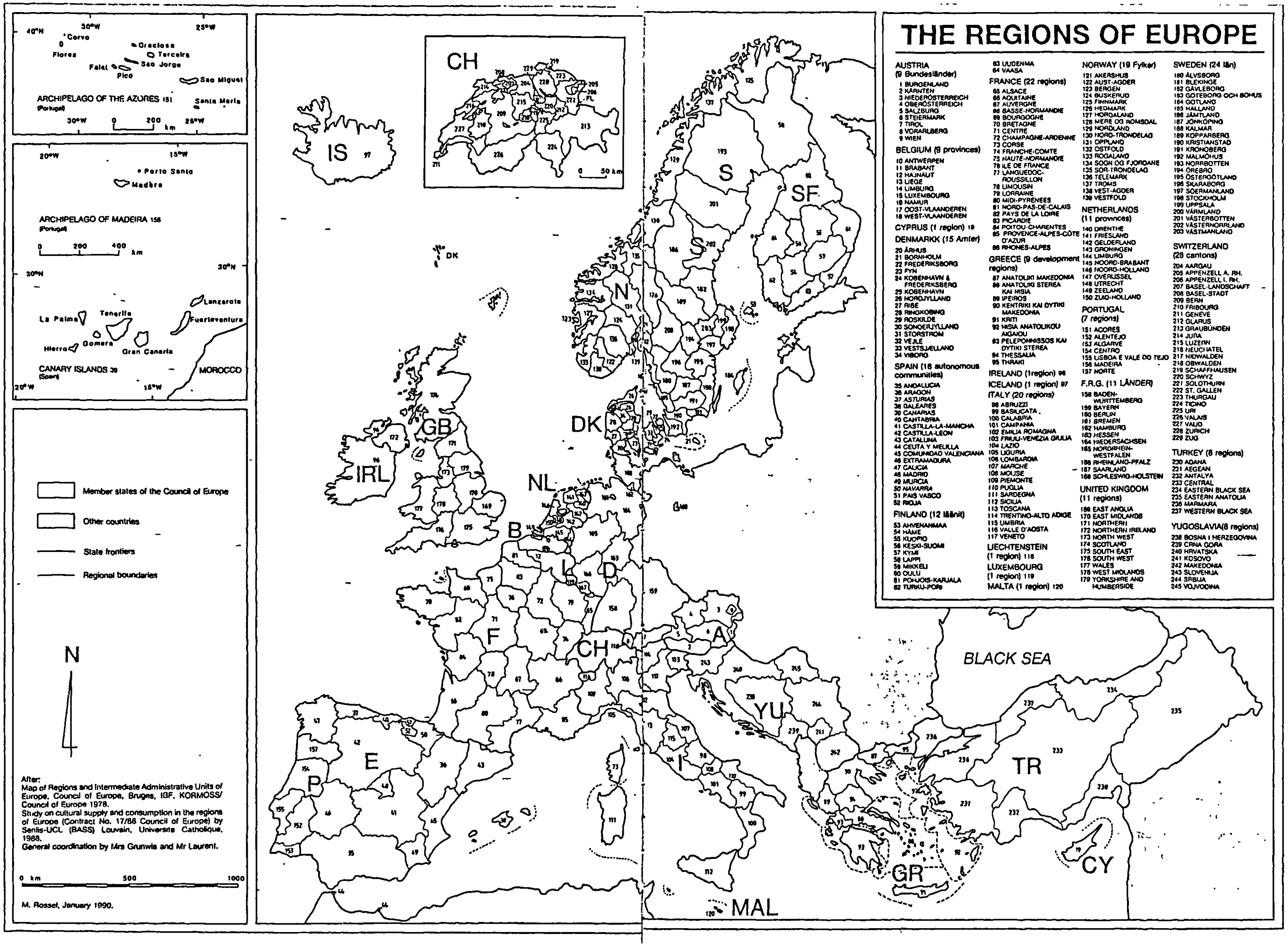
> "Shared attitudes, beliefs, categorisations, expectations, norms, roles, self-definitions, values and other such elements of subjective culture found among individuals whose interactions were facilitated by shared language, historical period, and geographic region" (p.3).

The definition possesses two key operational measures of culture: nation and language. National boundaries of different languages, therefore, have been utilised as distinct measurable groups that effect consumer behaviour uniformly. These cultural measures are discussed in further detail below.

3.2 Culture and Nationality

A nation is a body of people who share common descent, history, customs, and frequently language (The New Collins Concise English Dictionary, 1982). Nationality is one delimitation of individuals belonging to a large group, and may be thought of as an operational measure of culture. Whether culture and nationality are the same constructs is not self-evident. It is likely that, historically, shared culture has been a fundamental building block in the progressive construction of modern nation-states. Culture may be seen, however, to not equate directly with the nation-state. This is particularly the case where nation-states are multicultural, (e.g. India, Switzerland), and where political decisions have imposed the formation of new states through the processes of colonisation and decolonisation (e.g. many significant national cultures, such as that of the Kurds - split between the Iraqis, the Turks and the Iranians - have never been accorded the right to a territory or a state). Countries may also be heterogeneous and comprise of unique cultural and socioeconomic regional markets (e.g. Flanders and the Wallonia regions in Belgium, and the Quebec province in Canada) (Hill and Still, 1984; Jain, 1989) (See Figure 3.2).

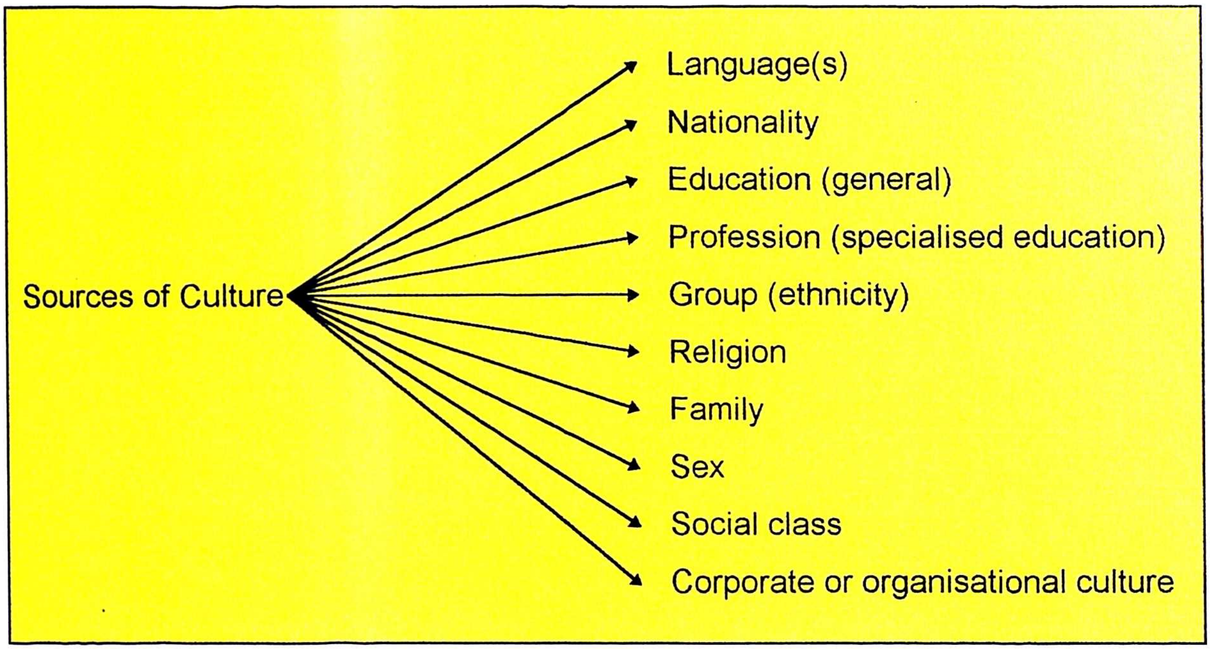
Figure 3.2 Culture & Regions of Europe



Source: Bassand, 1993

The national element is not always the main source of culture when regarded from an 'operational culture' perspective (Goodenough, 1971). For example, the sense of belonging to a particular ethnic group may override, and even nullify the feeling of belonging to a particular nation-state. Figure 3.3 outlines some basic sources of cultural background at the level of the individual. The food retailer, however, internationalises on a national level, and therefore for the purposes of marketing strategy, nation-states and nationality will be used to operationalise culture.

Figure 3.3 Operationalising Culture



Source: Usunier, 1993 (p.47)

3.3 Culture and Language

Language is an essential part of culture: it is often regarded as a reflection of culture. It is the most basic input of any culture-based communication process, because everyday life is mostly a matter of interaction through communication in a culturally homogeneous community. People speaking different languages, however, may share a common culture e.g. the Swiss use four different languages - German, French, Italian and Romansch. On the other hand, a language may extend beyond national and cultural boundaries, though not usually without some modification. For example, in the sense of being able to fully communicate with one another, most of the people of the UK, Australia, Canada and the US speak the same language; in reality there are a considerable number of variations. Nearly all European countries contain linguistic minorities - groups of speakers who have as their native variety a language other than that which is the official, dominant or major language in the country where they live. In some cases, where the minorities are relatively large, the nation-state usually has more than one official language (e.g. Flemish and French in Belgium). Where the minority is smaller or less influential, the minority language or languages are unlikely to have official status, and their speakers, often out of sheer practical necessity, will tend to be bilingual.

Sapir (1949) and Whorf (1952a; 1952b) have played prominent roles in developing the notion of the relativity of culture and in promoting the idea that a culture's life patterns are determined, or at least structured, according to its language. In a provocative and classic statement, Sapir (1949) wrote:

> "Human beings do not live in the objective world of social activity as ordinarily understood, but are very much at the mercy of the particular language which has become the medium expression for their society .... The fact of the matter is that the 'real world' is to a large extent built upon the language habits of the group .... We see and hear and experience very largely as we do because the language habits of our community predispose certain choices of interpretation."

It is also Whorf's view (1952a) that linguistic patterns determine what an individual perceives in her world and how she thinks about it. Since these patterns vary widely, the modes of thinking and perceiving in groups utilising different linguistic systems will result in basically different world views. Briefly stated, according to Whorf, language shapes one's ideas rather than merely expressing them. Whorf assumes an interaction between cultural norms and linguistic patterns. There are:

> "connections but not correlations or diagnostic correspondences between cultural norms and linguistic patterns" (Whorf, 1952b).

Language represents the mass mind, and while it is affected by innovations it is affected little and slowly. In Whorf's view, linguistic patterns, operating unconsciously, play the dominant role in the enculturing process. These patterns determine how the individual in the culture of the European Union analyses reality. Hence, the so-called 'Sapir-Whorf hypothesis' maintains that communication is not just a mere conduit of information and meaning, but a process that actually establishes reality, including who we are and who we will be. In an extension of consumer research, Holman (1981) has pointed out that cultures incorporate different perceptions of time in the verb structures of their languages and, therein, culture-specific images of the future may affect investment and buying patterns, perceived risks in buyer behaviour, and buyer-seller interactions across cultural borders.

Although the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (Sapir, 1949; Whorf, 1952a; Fearing, 1967; Thayer, 1982) has been extensively criticised by many linguists and international researchers alike, it remains a fundamental metaphor, though not a fully validated scientific theory (Usunier, 1993). Whilst most authors agree that the concept of language controlling thought is inherently fundamentalist, the concept of language influencing thought is relevant. Language, together with geographical region, therefore, will be utilised as pragmatic and appropriate operationalisations of culture.

3.4 Other Cultural Sources

In order to identify market segments it is important to determine the most homogeneous level of division which will provide the most efficient segmentation criteria in cultural terms. Other cultural segmentation variables, therefore, may be appropriate to identify homogeneous consumers. For example, ethnic background and lifestyle. Whether there is greater within market variance in consumer behaviour than across market is an important consideration for marketing strategy. Previous research, however, has identified that although lifestyle influences are significant in explaining consumption behaviour, the effect is not very strong (Eshghi and Sheth, 1985). National influences mainly determine the consumption patterns across countries. Triandis' definition of culture is retained, therefore, and nationality and language are maintained as the independent variables in the analysis. This definition, however, does not eliminate the effect of other cultural sources, and although the empirical research minimises the effects of these sources in terms of research design, they are considered as further explanatory variables.

Ethnicity

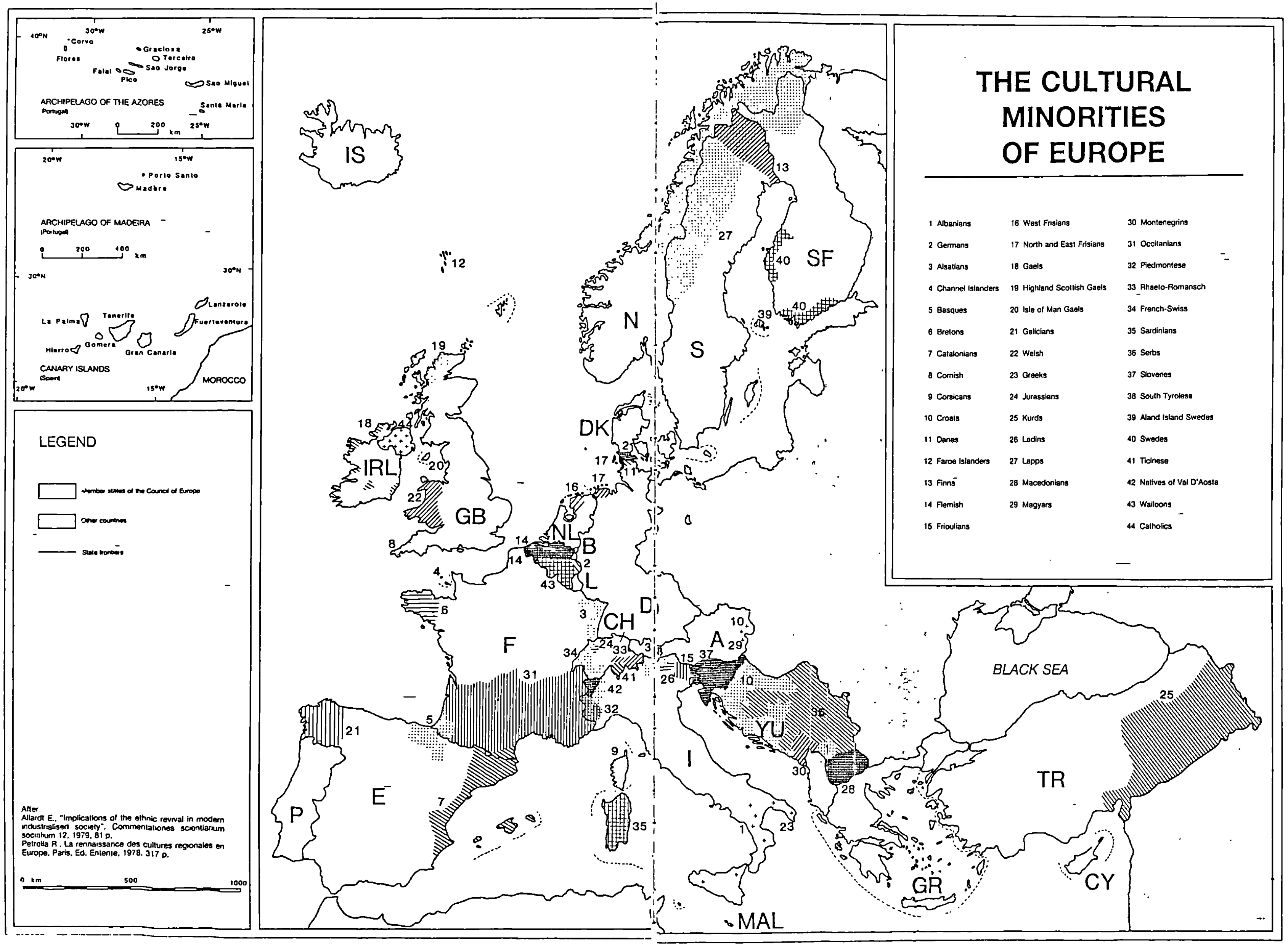
Culture refers to the common behaviour of a segment of society, whilst ethnicity refers to the differences in behaviour attributable to a minority culture. More specifically, ethnicity refers to one's affiliation or background with a minority population, normally retaining the customs, language and social views of the group. While ethnicity designates the same culture and language it does not necessarily designate the same territory though there is implicit reference to a common territory.

Ethnic minorities have been defined as any group that feels, from experience, that it is in a minority in relation to the environment in which the group lives (Usunier, 1996). Most of the world's largest economies have ethnic minorities and it is important for marketers to realise that, because of increased migration, few countries are ethnically homogeneous. In most cases, the ethnic composition of a country is unique and based on past historical alliances, exploits, and general migration patterns. Consequently, most countries are characterised by unique populations that are a mosaic of groups and individuals with distinct identities recognisable by themselves and others (Costa and Bammossy, 1995) (see Figure 3.4).

Lifestyle

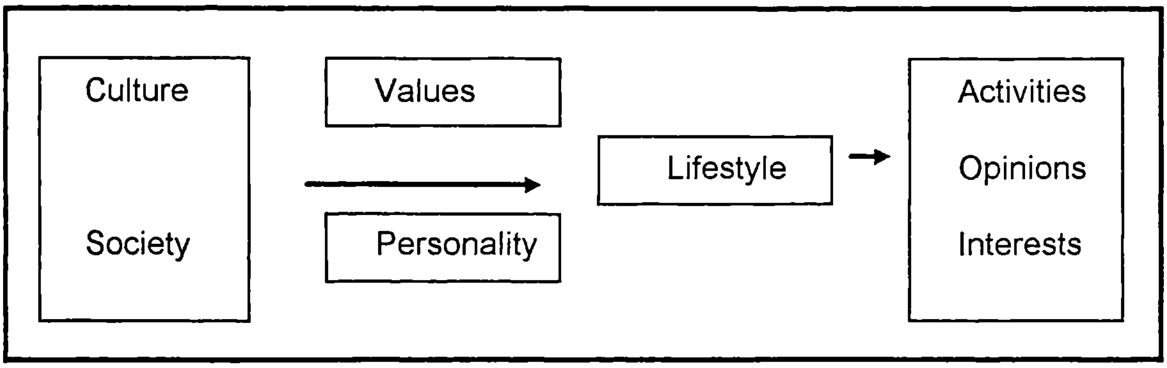
Consumers can be categorised on the basis of their lifestyle (Figure 3.5), which is commonly captured through measurement of a consumer's activities, interests and opinions. Lifestyles are the result of the interaction of the complex forces of society, and the mediating effect of values and personality (Plummer, 1974). One lifestyle, therefore is different from another. There are, however, groups of people who have very similar ways of life; they tend to do the same things, and to have similar opinions on many issues. Thus, the traditional, home-based housewife on a low income probably shops with costs in mind, while a 'modern' working woman shopping in her lunch-time may be most interested in buying food which does not take long to prepare (Roberts and Wortzel, 1979).

Figure 3.4 The Cultural Minorities of Europe



Source: Bassand, 1993

Figure 3.5 The Influences on Lifestyle



Source: Bareham, 1995

3.5 Summary

Conventional marketing models of consumption behaviour may not be universal across cultures, and with the rapid increase in internationalisation it is paramount to identify and understand variants of consumer behaviour for developing international marketing strategy. Before variants can be identified however, culture needs to be defined for operationalisation into distinct measurable groups. There are many definitions of culture. Any operationalisation, however, must take into account the purposes for which the variable is to be used for. Internationalising retailers usually develop by country, and, therefore, country-influences on consumer behaviour are of most relevance to marketing strategy. Triandis' (1972) definition of culture has been adopted, therefore, and nation-states with shared language and historical period have been taken to represent distinct 'cultures'.

Consumer behaviour encompasses an extensive sphere of activity. To identify cultural similarities or differences in the consumer, a particular model/theory needs to be selected for operationalisation. Chapter 4, therefore, considers appropriate theories of consumer behaviour at the point-of-sale for the application to cross-cultural retail marketing.

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CHAPTER 4

A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

4.0 Introduction

The consumer market is one of the main determinants of a country's retailing structure (Bareham, 1995; Fisher, 1990). Innovation and developments in retailing largely reflect an adaptation to changing consumer markets (Kau and Ehrenberg, 1984). In the light of increasing internationalisation (Chapter 2), there is a need to understand consumer markets in terms of global models of buying behaviour and strategic market planning. Most of the traditional models of buyer behaviour are based on uni-cultural assumptions and, therefore, can not be readily extended to the global marketplace. It has been argued that the different cultural, social, and religious values found within Europe, alongside historical, socio-economic, and patterns of development, ensure that consumer behaviour remains diverse (Chapter 2). Food retailers developing internationally, therefore, may be able to distinguish between these consumer differences for greater targeting of marketing strategies and store operations. Capturing measurements of disparities in consumer behaviour cross-culturally requires adequate operationalisations of both 'culture' and 'behaviour'. Chapter 3 specified the definition of culture. Chapter 4 examines models of consumer behaviour and their application in the international marketplace. Subsequently, the choice of consumer research paradigm is justified in the light of the consumer behaviour model selected for study, and the retail context in which the behaviour takes place.

4.1 Modeling Consumer Behaviour for Food Retail Marketing

Consumers exhibit various behaviours in the marketplace, and to develop and test global consumer models these behaviours need first to be defined. Consumption behaviour is defined as the acquisition and utilisation of goods and services by ultimate consumers functioning in some temporal and some spatial environment (Feldman and Hornick, 1981; Jacoby, 1975). The objective of consumer research is to describe the factors that determine an individual's usage of available resources in the consumption process and to predict consumer behaviour.

In the individual's role as a consumer, three categories of response are particularly important:

- the purchases the consumer makes and the activities before making them (purchasing behaviour);
- the use the consumer makes of the product (consumption behaviour);
- the communication that the consumer provides to other consumers (communication behaviour).

Purchasing behaviour is of the most immediate significance for the marketer. It includes the purchase itself, as well as the preceding acts such as choice of supplier. When purchase is made, consumption behaviour starts. Consumption behaviour is important because subsequent purchases are influenced by previous consumption. Communication responses occur when the consumer acts as a source of information for other consumers or when the consumer provides informational feedback to retailers and producers. An understanding of purchase behaviour is particularly relevant in the environment of the European food retailer. The consumer- choice process preceding purchase and the purchase itself is of utmost importance to retail marketing strategies and, indeed, the retailer has the greatest access to and influence of this behaviour.

Several comprehensive theories/models have been developed within the field of consumer behaviour (e.g. Engel et al, 1968; Engel et al, 1995, Howard and Sheth, 1969; Nicosia, 1966). Models have also been developed for specific contexts, such as for family decision making (Sheth, 1974) and information processing (Bettman, 1979). From a cognitive perspective, and also by viewing consumer behaviour at an individual level, the consumer choice process model subsumes many of the models detailed above (Figure 4.1).

For example, the variables and relationships in the following models are subsumed in Figure 4.1: perceived risk (Cox, 1967); dissonance (Festinger, 1957; Brehm and Cohen, 1962; Engel and Light, 1968; Oshikawa, 1969); attitude and preference (Day, 1974; Katona, 1964); personality and motivational models (Brody and Cunnigham, 1968); cultural anthropological models (Engel et al, 1968).

Figure 4.1 The Cognitive Consumer Choice Process

INPUTS	Social, cultural, political and economic environmental stimuli Attentional and perceptual filter
CENTRAL PROCESS	Interpretation, formation and evaluation of wants, needs and necessary actions
OUTPUTS	Brand beliefs Attitudes Purchase intentions Facilitating/Impeding conditions ↓ Response

The consumer choice process details the influences and activities of the shopper at an individual level. For application to international food retailers, however, purchase behaviour should be placed within the context of the international marketplace, and also of food buying. Although the consumer choice process accounts for environmental stimuli, the process may be placed in a more comprehensive context to manage consumer behaviour for strategic marketing purposes.

Examining first the literature relating to the international context of consumer behaviour, Raju (1995) has identified that no simple framework lends itself to a comprehensive study of consumer behaviour in international markets, and has proposed the A-B-C-D paradigm to solve this problem (Figure 4.2). The paradigm proposes that the first step to marketing globally is to provide access to the product/service for consumers within a culture. Access pertains both to physical access as well as to economic access. The identification of the buying behaviour of consumers within a culture is the second stage in global development, and encompasses all factors impacting on decision making. An investigation of consumption characteristics recognises that specific products/services can be purchased and consumed differently in different cultures. Cultural orientation (traditional versus modern) and social class distribution, among other factors, will determine consumption patterns within a culture. Finally, the issue of 'disposal' needs to be addressed: most countries are becoming more environmentally conscious and moving away from throw-away products. Hence marketers need to design systems to facilitate the safe disposal, recycling, resale, or re-manufacturing of products. They must also meet their social responsibilities in other countries, especially in relation to public safety and environmental pollution.

This hierarchical approach of studying consumer behaviour in international markets provides the marketer with a systematic way to prioritise the marketing tasks within a country, i.e. access issues should be considered before other considerations can be made. When developing internationally, therefore, the consumer choice process should be viewed in the wider context of other strategic consumer behaviour considerations. The present research, however, is concerned specifically with the consumer choice process, and although the additional implications of operating globally are recognised, these have not been addressed.

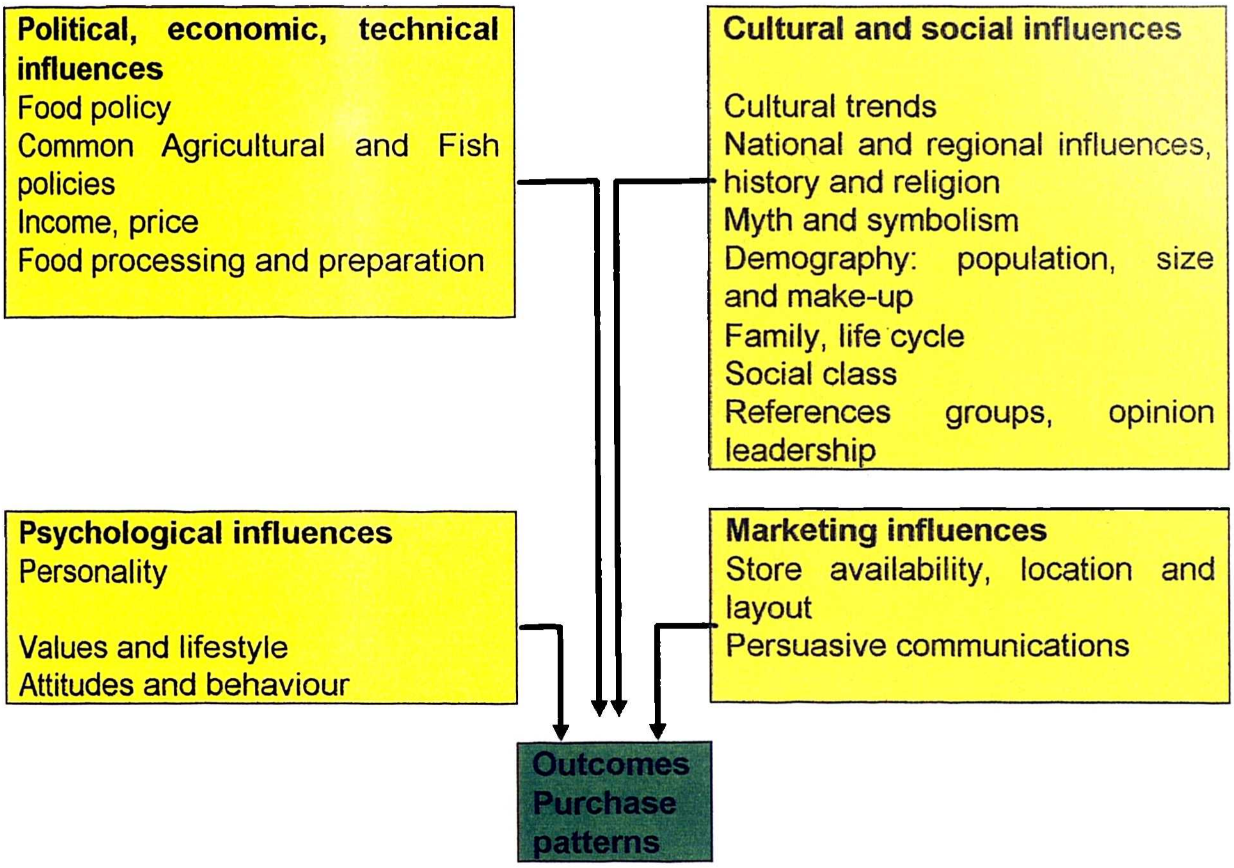
Figure 4.2 The A-B-C-D Consumer Behaviour Paradigm

ACCESS	Can consumers obtain product/service? (1) Economic access - income distribution, affordability (2) Physical access - international trade barriers, distribution system, infrastructure
BUYING BEHAVIOUR	How is the decision to buy made by consumers? (1) Perceptions - country of origin, brand equity, price-quality (2) brand loyalty, store loyalty (3) General attitudes toward marketing/consumerism (4) Deeper analysis of consumer psyche, e.g. impact of social norms, psychological orientation, etc.
CONSUMP. CHARACTS.	What factors impact on consumption patterns? (1) Product versus service consumption in culture (2) Cultural orientation (traditional versus modern) (3) Social class/reference group influences (4) Urban versus rural sector consumption patterns
DISPOSAL	What are the implications of product disposal? (1) Resale, recycling, and remanufacturing considerations (2) Social responsibility and environmental implications of product disposal.

Source: Raju, 1995

Secondly, placing consumer behaviour in the context of food, although the consumer choice process details a number of influences impacting on behaviour, additional influences are applicable to food purchasing, expressly those detailed in Figure 4.3. An acknowledgement of these influences reduces the risk that the operational model of buyer behaviour developed later in this chapter will suffer from specification error.

Figure 4.3 A Model of Consumer Choice with Food



Source: Bareham, 1995

4.2 Consumer Involvement

Culture is the broadest environmental dimension affecting consumer behaviour because norms, beliefs and customs learned from society lead to patterns of behaviour (Sherry, 1987). Every individual is a product of their culture; all facets of life are carried out against the background of the society in which one lives. Almost unknowingly, cultural antecedents affect everyday actions and decisions (Britt, 1966), and although consumer behaviour has strong universal components, its cultural variations cannot be ignored (Usunier, 1993; Dubois, 1987). Several essential points of cultural influence on consumer behaviour include:

- hierarchy of needs, which distorts demand across product categories (Maslow, 1954; Belk, 1988);
- culture-based values, especially on individualistic or collectivist orientations, which influence purchasing behaviour and the decision process (individual versus family) (Kushner, 1982; Laurent, 1982);
- institutions which influence consumer behaviour greatly (Dubois, 1987); and,
- influence through cultural variations in the personal factors of consumer behaviour: brand loyalty, consumer involvement, perceived risk, cognitive style (Yang, 1972; Lazer et al, 1985).

Of particular interest to the present study are the varying cultural influences on consumer involvement. During the last decade, the concept of involvement has received intensive and rapidly growing attention in consumer behaviour research. The degree to which consumers are involved in different aspects of the consumption process, such as products, advertisements and the act of purchasing, has grown to be regarded as one of the central determinants of consumer behaviour (Laaksonen, 1994). The main reason for this lies in the potential of involvement to account for the differences in the degree of both the mental and the physical effort a consumer is willing to devote to consumption-related activities.

The literature suggests that when making decisions, highly involved individuals compared to lower involved individuals will: use more criteria (Mitchell, 1979); search for more information (Beatty and Smith, 1983); accept fewer alternatives (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981); process relevant information in detail (Chaiken, 1980); want to know the strengths and weaknesses of possible alternatives in more detail (Maheswaren and Meyers-Levy, 1990); and will form attitudes that are more resistant to change (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981). Involvement levels, therefore, can impact on information processing, decision making, brand loyalty, and responses to advertising (Maheswaren and Meyers-Levy, 1990). This suggests to marketers that the level of the consumers' involvement should influence the types of marketing efforts chosen by corporations and institutions.

The routine buying situation, such as the weekly shop for groceries, has invariably been regarded as a low involvement activity (e.g. Houston and Rothschild, 1978; Kassarjian and Kassarjian, 1979; Lastovicka and Gardner, 1978; Winter and Rossiter, 1989; Foxall, 1993e), characterised by negligible information search, little deliberation in brand choice and ease of brand switching to a substitute within a category. Beharrell and Dennison (1995), however, found that consumers are as highly involved in purchase decisions related to fresh meats and dairy products as they are about buying car insurance and restaurant visits. These results throw in doubt the notion that purchasing grocery products, given the low level of risk attached, necessarily concerns low involvement decisions. Additionally, many marketing practitioners seem to believe that consumers choose their grocery products and brands in a highly discriminating and deliberate fashion. Davis (1986) found that some 23 per cent of costs for a major food manufacturer were directly or indirectly attributable to building their brands' added-values. If consumers were not in some way prepared to pay for that differentiating activity or if the brand differences were not sufficiently valued, they argue, there would not be the economic justification for either manufacturers or retailers to engage in expensive branding exercises.

Involvement, therefore, would seem to be of relevance to investigate in food purchase decisions, as it is a discriminating variable between consumer behaviour. A problem arises in involvement research in that there is no commonly agreed upon definition of involvement. Involvement has been perceived as:

1. personal relevance (Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984; Krugman, 1965; Mitchell, 1979; Rothschild, 1984). For example, in the advertising domain, involvement is manipulated by making the advertisement 'relevant' to the receiver who is thus personally affected, and hence motivated to respond to the advertisement (e.g. Petty and Cacioppo, 1981);
2. an internal 'state' variable that indicates the amount of arousal, interest or drive evoked by a particular stimulus or situation. Involvement, therefore, has two dimensions, intensity and direction. Intensity concerns the level of arousal, interest or drive and direction concerns the evoking stimulus object and/or situation;
3. an activation of extended problem-solving behaviour (Engel and Blackwell, 1982). For example, Bettman (1979) cited level of involvement as a mediating variable in information search. An outcome of the extended problem solving is the connection of high involvement with the evaluation of competing alternatives. Since the highly involved consumer searches for relevant information, the available alternatives are thought to be consciously compared before a selection is made;
4. a goal hierarchy (Simon, 1967). Here involvement might indicate the location of the particular stimulus and/or situation in a goal hierarchy at a particular point of time. A high involvement situation would have a reasonably high priority in the hierarchy, and a low involvement situation a low priority. Consequently, involvement may be viewed as mediating the amount of cognitive effort that will be expended in a given situation; and,

5. a 'state' variable which links involvement with consumer values. Most of the 'state' variable measures of involvement that have appeared in the consumer behaviour literature have their roots in social psychology. Here, starting with Sherif and Cantril (1947), involvement has been conceptualised in terms of the relationship between an individual's values and an issue or object. The more the issue or object becomes integrated with the individual's values, the higher the level of involvement. This definition of involvement, termed 'ego involvement', has generally been viewed in the social psychology literature as a mediator of persuasion effects. More recent definitions of 'ego involvement' have stressed 'commitment' to the issue (Freedman, 1964) or the relationship of the issue or object to other elements of an individual's cognitive structure (Ostrom and Brock, 1968).

Despite the many varied definitions of consumer involvement that have emerged in the literature, there are several common ideas: involvement is a multi-dimensional construct, and a motivational force which can explain various behavioural outcomes. For example, number and type of choice criteria, extensiveness of information search, length of decision-making process, variety seeking and brand switching. Consumers may be involved at a product level (Alden et al, 1989), a purchase level (e.g. Clarke and Belk, 1978) or at the communication level (e.g. Petty and Cacioppo, 1981). The various definitions of involvement have been categorised into three main perspectives as detailed by Finn (1983) (Figure 4.4). Extant literature have been applied into this framework to ensure a considered decision when choosing an appropriate conceptual definition of involvement.

The product-centred perspective defines involvement as the perceived importance of the product to the consumer, i.e. whether the product is trivial and, therefore, unimportant, or serious and thus important. The subject-centred view maintains that consumers differ in terms of involvement-type variables. Three sub-groupings of subject-centred definitions have been postulated. They include interest/importance, relevancy (goals/consequences) and commitment (ego involvement). In this perspective, involvement has been defined as either the level of interest the consumer has in a product category or how important it is to her; the level a consumer is involved with a product insofar as it is related to some achievable end or concerns information that will directly impact on them; and, the level of commitment the consumer exhibits with respect to her position on an issue. The final alternative perspective views involvement as response-centred. This view holds that involvement is the active participation in information processing.

Contrary to Finn's categorisation (1983), it could be argued that these definitions should not be viewed separately, but are linked sequentially. Involvement is a state of motivation moderating the influences on behaviour. Although involvement can take place at the communication, product or purchase level, the level of motivation results from product attributes from which the product tends to be more or less involving (product-centred view) and how related the product is to the consumer's psycho-social wants and needs (personal relevance). The motivation is expressed as an interest in the product category and this interest influences behavioural outcomes, including brand commitment. A revised conceptual definition of involvement, therefore, is outlined below. The antecedents and components of involvement are investigated further, both theoretically and empirically, in Chapter 6 resulting in an operational definition.

> Consumer involvement is a motivational state that moderates the predictors of behaviour through cognitive and affective assessment, and results in behavioural outcomes.

Figure 4.4 Defining Consumer Involvement

Product-Centred View	Subject-Centred View			Response-Centred View
	Interest / Importance	Relevancy	Commitment	
Alden, Hoyer & Wechasara, 1989 Product Involvement	Beharrell & Denison, 1995	Foxall & Bhate, 1993 "personal relevance ...... to an individual of an object or activity, a motivating factor which determines attitude strength and the probability of consistent behaviour."	Lastovicka, 1979 Involvement defined product classification system is consumer not product defined... homogeneous consumer perceptions & behaviours determine a particular good's involvement classification.	Edgett & Cullen, 1993
Kassarjian, 1981 Product and individual involvement.	Foxall & Bhate, 1993 "...... importance to an individual of an object or activity, a motivating factor which determines attitude strength and the probability of consistent behaviour."	Zaichkowsky, 1985 "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interests."	Lastovicka & Gardner, 1978 Linkage of consumer values to a product class producing consumer commitment to the brands. "commitment ... the pledging or binding of an individual to his brand choice."	Mittal, 1989
Olshavsky & Grandbois, 1979 High risk important product versus unimportant trivial product.	Mittal, 1989	Engel & Blackwell, 1982 Personal relevance as related to the needs of the individual.	Sherif, Sherif, & Nebergall, 1965	Park, Assael & Chaiy, 1987
Clarke & Belk, 1978 "products and services .... their inherent involvement."	Rothschild, 1984 "A state of interest, motivation or arousal."	Mitchell, 1979 "an individual level, internal state variable related to the location of the particular stimulus &/or situation in a goal hierarchy at a particular point in time."		Bloch, Sherrell & Ridgway, 1986 "represents an internal motivating state of the consumer that manifests itself in a variety of outcomes, one of which is ongoing search."

Product-Centred View	Subject-Centred View			Response-Centred View
	Interest / Importance	Relevancy	Commitment	
Rothschild, 1978 "situational Involvement .... the inherent nature of a product elicits a certain level of concern."	Antil, 1984 A state of perceived importance or a state of interest evoked by the stimulus and the situation.	Bowen & Chafee, 1974 "a direct outgrowth of the potential benefits or rewards the product holds for the consumer." "a relation between consumer and product that theoretically operates as a contingency, or necessary condition, governing the relevancy or pertinence in an ad's (product or service) appeal to the consumer."		Laurent and Kapferer, 1985 "a causal or motivating variable with a number of consequences on the consumer's purchase and communication behaviour."
Robertson, 1976 Products differ in their tendency to arouse involvement.	Bloch, 1981 "a long term interest in a product which is based on the centrality of the product to important values, needs or the self-concept."	Wright, 1973 Involvement stems from the consumers' *perception* of the relevancy of the product/advertisement to some impeding problem she faces.		Greenwald & Leavitt, 1984
Hupfer & Gardner, 1971	Kassarjian, 1981 Product and individual involvement.			Stone, 1984 Time &/or intensity of effort expended in behaviour ... complexity of processing.
	Tigert, King & Ring, 1980			Cohen, 1983 "a state of activation."

Product-Centred View	Subject-Centred View			Response-Centred View
	Interest / Importance	**Relevancy**	**Commitment**	
	Houston & Rothschild, 1978 "enduring involvement .... the strength of the pre-existing relationship between an individual and the situation in which behaviour will occur.... prior experience .... strength of values"			Park & Young, 1983 "a mediator *of a brand* attitude."
	Lastovicka & Gardner, 1978 "normative importance.... how connected or engaged a product class is to an individual's values."			Engel & Blackwell, 1982 "the activation of extended problem solving behaviour"
	Day, 1974 "*describes the* general level of interest in the object."			Leavitt et al, 1981
	Howard & Sheth, 1969 Importance variable is another label for degree of involvement.			Bettman, 1979 "a mediating variable in information search."
	Freedman, 1964 "*a general* level of interest in or concern about an issue *without references* to a specific position."			Krugman, 1965 The intensity of information processing, operationalised as the number of connections made by an individual.

A review of the relevant literature provides several components of involvement, including: the importance of a product class to the consumers' needs, values and interests (*normative involvement*); the subjective risk and probability of making a mispurchase (*risk involvement*); the relation of self-image to the product *(sign involvement*); the consumers' interest in a product class as a whole (*enduring involvement*); and the consumers' interest and commitment (loyalty to the brand choice) with brands within a product class (*situational involvement*) (Lastovicka and Gardner, 1978; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Higie and Feick, 1988; Ratchford, 1987; Vaughn, 1986; Mittel, 1989; Jain and Srinivasen, 1990). The components of involvement are of relevance in understanding the influences and mediating variables on consumer behaviour, and, therefore, in model development. As the components of involvement are investigated in Chapter 6, however, involvement is not elaborated on in greater detail in the current chapter.

4.3 Cross-Cultural Applicability of the Construct of Involvement

In general, the characteristics of consumer behaviour have been extensively studied by scholars. International research, however, has been relatively limited, despite repeated suggestions in the literature for studies of this nature (Boddweyn, 1981; Albaum & Peterson, 1984; Bradley, 1987). Further, although involvement has been one of the most heavily researched topics in the recent consumer behaviour literature, comparatively little research has been conducted on the cross-cultural generalisability of involvement as a mediating variable in decision making. There have been many attempts to analyse consumer behaviour and the purchase process through involvement. Little effort, however, has been made to establish the relationship between involvement and a cultural breakdown of international markets. In addition, McCarthy (1989) claims that:

> "models and theories of consumer behaviour should be tested under different ecological environments and cross-cultural work would aid in our understanding of the generalisability of our theories of consumption".

Corporations involved with the global marketing of food products require a multicultural understanding of the marketplace to successfully plan and implement marketing strategies. Some of the areas which are most affected by this need are: new product planning, new product introduction, segmentation, assessment of segmentation potential, forecasting local and global demand, promotional strategies and tactics, and selection of market arenas for competitive attacks and defensive manoeuvres. The model of consumer involvement has particular application for the global firm in the area of segmentation, new product introduction, and promotional strategies and tactics. It is important, therefore, for multinational firms to understand the position of a new product on an involvement continuum for the specific country market. Even if the physical product is the same, peripheral aspects of the product, i.e. package, service, or channel distribution, may require adjustments according to the purchase behaviour expected by its position on the involvement continuum.

By measuring the level of involvement in various country markets, knowledge may be gained as to the feasibility of standardising the product and communication variables in the international marketing programmes of products/services. If some countries score significantly higher than others on overall involvement with a product/service category, then the strategic positioning of that product/service internationally might have to differ. These varying strategic marketing implications due to involvement are summarised by Harrell (1986):

> "if it can be determined that consumers in some countries consider a product to be high involvement and consumers in other countries consider it to be low involvement, a standardised marketing programme for that product might have little chance of success. On the other hand, if consumers across national boundaries consistently consider a product to be either low or high involvement, the company might be able to implement a standardised programme. No doubt there would be other factors to consider, however, the relative strength of the involvement score might assist the enquiry into the other factors".

It is pertinent, therefore, to analyse cross-frontier cultural differences with regards to consumer buyer behaviour. This analysis will determine what cultural buying behaviour differences exist within the European environment, and to ascertain how important / significant they are to food retailers' development strategies. Specifically, by linking the micro-construct, involvement and the macro-construct, culture, consumer behaviour differences can be investigated for application to international marketing strategy.

4.4 Cognitive and Behavioural Consumer Paradigms

The most widely-accepted and influential models of consumer behaviour derive in large part from cognitive psychology (Gardner, 1981; Kassarjian, 1981). As a result, consumer choice is usually understood as a problem-solving and decision making sequence of activities, the outcome of which is determined principally by the buyer's intellectual functioning, and rational, goal-directed processing of information (Howard, 1983). This implies that the consumer is an intelligent, rational, thinking, and problem-solving organism, who stores and evaluates sensory inputs to make a reasoned decision (Markin and Narayana, 1975). Observed action, therefore, is attributed to intra-personal information processing. Consumers engage in means-end processing involving comparison and evaluation of alternative brands in relation to the consumer's purposes and aims. Consumer choice, therefore, is seen as an ego-involving sequence of cognitive, affective and conative changes which precede and predetermine the purchase/no purchase outcome.

A great deal of consumer behaviour, however, does not involve extensive search for information or a comprehensive evaluation of the choice alternatives, even for the purchase of major items (Olshavsky and Granbois, 1979). The average consumer makes dozens of mundane decisions each day, few of which may be of importance. For such decisions, it may be inappropriate to assume an active information processor (Kassarjian, 1981). This idea has led theorists to view consumer behaviour in terms of a two-fold dichotomy: low involvement consumer behaviour and high involvement consumer behaviour (Engel and Blackwell, 1982).

Involvement forms part of the cognitive information processing paradigm and can explain the differences in the degree of both mental and physical effort a consumer is willing to devote to consumption related activities. Consumer involvement is generally perceived to be related to the cognitive and affective processes that mediate consumption-behaviours. Purchase involvement may be perceived as a motivational purchase attitude. Attitudes, however, are not necessarily good predictors of behaviour (Burke, 1992). It is argued, therefore, that involvement creates a predisposition to act in a certain manner, it is a state of motivation in which purchase behaviour may take place. Environmental cues, in the form of the in-store retail setting, however, stimulate the predisposition and convert it into action. Purchasing behaviour, therefore, is the result of the interaction of the predisposition to act and the environmental cues that can stimulate action.

The cognitive paradigm of consumer behaviour suggests that behaviour is a result of intra-personal information processing. In comparison, the behaviourist approach suggests that stimuli are predominantly found in the environment (Foxall, 1990; Foxall, 1993c). A pluralist perspective has been adopted, therefore, as appropriate to link the factors in the external environment that act as stimuli, with factors internal or intra-personal.

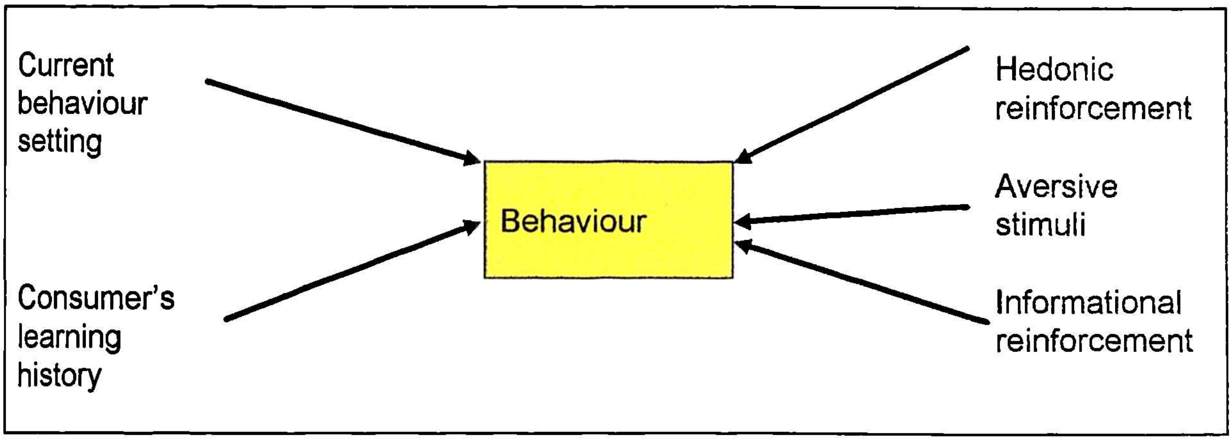
The behavioural perspective is derived from operant behaviourism (Skinner, 1938; 1953; Foxall, 1993c). Operant behaviourism is a philosophy of psychology which attributes behavioural responses to the environmental consequences which similar responses have produced. Consequences of behaviour may reinforce the behaviour and, therefore, result in an increase in its occurrence. Negative consequences, however, decrease the behaviour's occurrence, and neutral consequences have no effect at all. Operant behaviourism maintains two fundamental assumptions: the frequency with which behaviour is performed is a function of the consequences of such behaviour in the past, and determinants of behaviour must, therefore, be sought in the environment rather than within the individual (Foxall, 1993c).

Foxall (1990; 1992a; 1993a) critiqued the operant paradigm and developed the Behavioural Perspective Model (BPM) of purchase and consumption. The BPM relates patterns of consumer choice to their differing environmental consequences (Figure 4.5). The current behaviour setting is the antecedent events which set the scene for consumer behaviour to occur. Learning history is the cumulative effect of rewarding or punishing outcomes of past behaviour. The consequences of behaviour result in: hedonic reinforcement (the satisfaction of buying, owning and consuming goods (Hirshman and Holbrook, 1982); informational reinforcements (feedback on the consumer's performance, e.g. social status accorded conspicuous consumption); and aversive consequences (costs of consuming, relinquishing money, forgoing alternative products etc.). The reinforcements then add to the consumer's learning history and, together with the current behaviour setting, cyclically form the antecedents of behaviour. The behavioural setting consists of the purchase situation and the present communication stimuli (point of sale communications). It is also a function of the individual's culture, past-communication stimuli, past-purchase satisfaction and product knowledge. These, together with other individual variables (economic, demographic and lifestyle) are the determinants of behaviour.

The determinants are moderated by two key conditions: the motivational state in which the consumer resides, and external impeding or facilitating conditions that are present. Pre, actual and post-purchase may then take place. The BPM 'reinforcements', however, may alternatively be perceived as involvement. Involvement is a state of motivation which mediates the individual, experiential and situational determinants of behaviour. Thus, hedonic and informational reinforcements may be perceived as motivating the consumer in the form of normative involvement. Aversive reinforcement, may be seen partly as risk involvement and partly as external impeding/facilitating conditions as outlined in the consumer choice process model. The reinforcements, therefore, affect consumer interest and feelings towards products in the form of enduring and situational involvement.

Particularly for fast moving consumer goods, the environment plays a crucial role in adapting/influencing consumer behaviour, for example, impulse purchases and brand swapping. Environmental determinants are pertinent, therefore, in retail strategy. Both cognitive and behavioural viewpoints are relevant in addressing the issue of consumer behaviour within the retail environment, and a pluralist research approach is taken, where the BPM and the cognitive choice process model are combined into a germane archetype, to be tested on the environment under investigation (Figure 4.6). Marketers are unable to access an individual's internal cognitive state. The behavioural setting, however, is able to be manipulated by the marketer, which, therefore, may influence the information processing of the consumer. By fusing the BPM and the cognitive model together, the consumer choice process becomes are more identifiable mechanism, and, therefore, can be influenced by marketing strategy to a greater degree.

Figure 4.5 The Behavioural Perspective Model



Source: Foxall, 1992b; 1993b

4.5 Summary

An understanding of consumer behaviour in different international marketplaces can greatly aid global marketing strategy. Specifically, consumer involvement is a key variable in purchase behaviour, and is of particular relevance in the food retail environment. Involvement is a motivational state that mediates the influencers of behaviour. The review of the literature failed to identify any discussion of the variability in levels of involvement across countries for food. Studies have, however, shown that for other products and services, involvement has a significant impact on purchase behaviour. Given the lack of information, and the potential variability in impact, it is important to identify consumer involvement levels across countries. Consequently, the information could be used as a discriminating element in the development of international marketing programmes.

Both intra-personal and environmental influences on behaviour have been identified. A pluralist paradigm for investigating purchase behaviour, therefore, has been adopted. The theoretical framework has been outlined in Figure 4.6 which synthesises both cognitive and behavioural perspectives of consumer behaviour, and is relevant to be applied in the context of food retailing.

The three areas of interest defined in the research problem definition (Chapter 1) - international retailing, culture and consumer behaviour - have been reviewed in Chapters 2 to 4. Chapter 5, therefore, applies the issues that have been raised into a feasible research design.

Figure 4.6 An Adaptation of the Consumer Choice Process: Cognitive and Behavioural Influences in an Open Behavioural Setting (CBI)

DETERMINANTS OF BEHAVIOUR → MEDIATING VARIABLES → BEHAVIOUR

Individual-Specific Environment	Experiential and Situational Product-Specific Environment	Motivation	External Impeding / Facilitating Conditions	Pre-purchase	Purchase	Post-purchase
Culture	Past-communication stimuli	Risk involvement	Length of time available	Info. search	Purchase / rejection	Consumption
Economic status	Past-purchase satisfaction	Normative involvement	Availability of funds	Evaluation of alternatives	Brand loyalty	Complaint behaviour
	Attentional and	*Perceptual filter*				
Demographic variables	Product knowledge	Enduring involvement	Availability of product	Response to advertising	Brand swapping	
Lifestyle	Purchase situation	Situational involvement				
	Present communication stimuli (p.o.s)					

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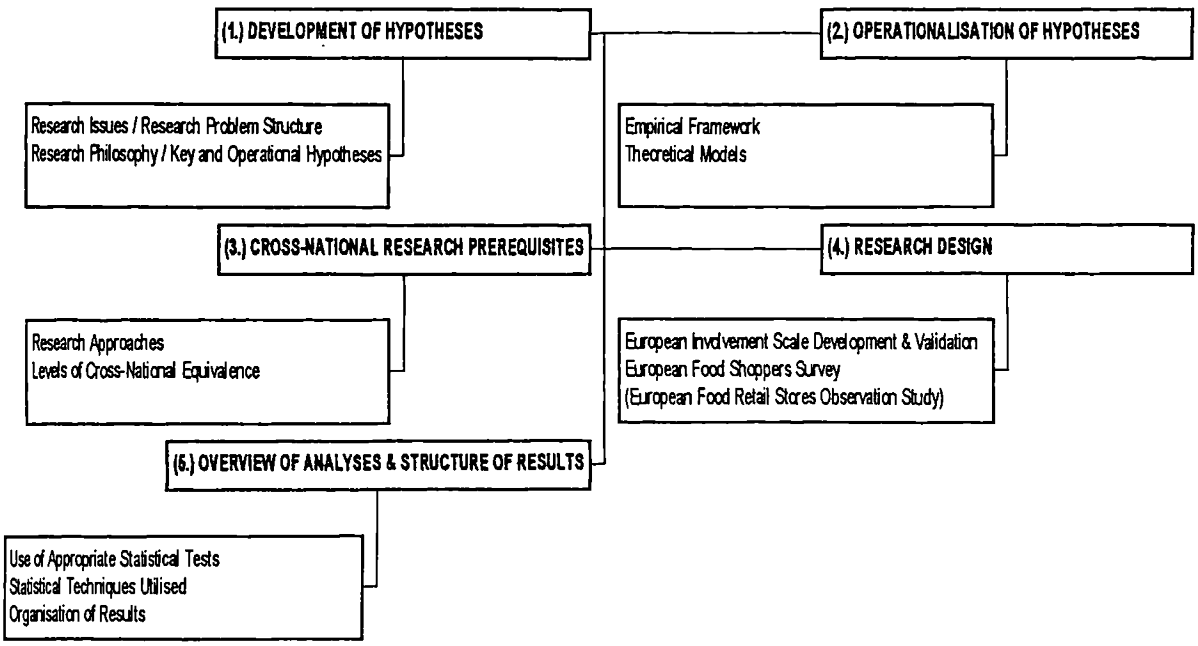
CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

5.0 Introduction

The literature review of the retail industry and the theoretical framework outlined in Chapters 3 and 4 have identified an information gap in cross-cultural consumer behaviour in the European food retail environment. Specifically, consumer involvement has been identified as an important mediator of behaviour. It is argued that this construct has implications for international marketing strategy. The Methodology Chapter is divided into five major sections (Figure 5.1) to establish a consistent programme to surmount the information gap. The first section outlines the key issues discerned from the theoretical framework. The framework provides a structure in which to define the research problem, and the hypotheses are developed on the basis of this definition. The second section summarises how the hypotheses will be tested and details the variables that will be investigated. Cross-national research concerns and prerequisites are addressed next, followed by an in-depth plan of the research design. Finally, the progressive structure of the data analyses is specified and an outline of the organisation of the results is provided.

Figure 5.1 Structure of the Methodology Chapter



5.1 The Development of Hypotheses

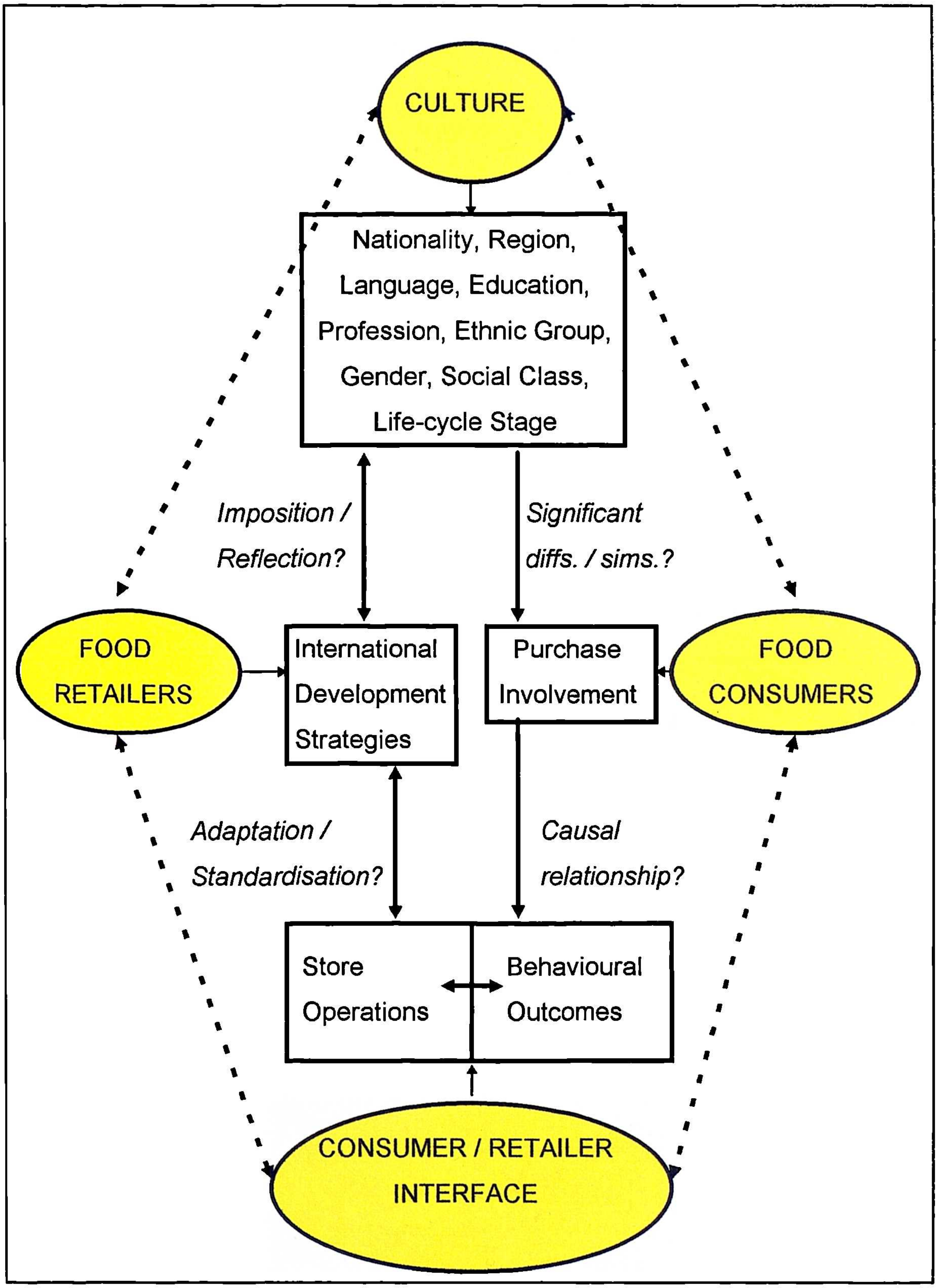
The literature review in Chapters 2 to 4 has established the need for an increase in the knowledge of marketing in other countries and how different marketing systems operate in delivering food products to consumers (Bucklin, 1972; Kaynak, 1988). Analysis of the structural and environmental factors of foreign countries' food marketing systems (as illustrated in Chapter 2), are necessary to the success of an international retailer's marketing efforts in that country (Kaynak, 1988). One key factor to understanding the nature and operation of a food retail system is to analyse the characteristics and behaviour of food shoppers of that system (Chapter 4). Cross-cultural studies are needed to facilitate nomothetic analysis across several cultures.

In making an international product decision, it is critical to analyse consumer behaviour from a macro perspective. Cultural considerations play a crucial role in the development and marketing of global consumer products (Cateora, 1987). There have been many attempts to analyse consumer behaviour and the purchase process through involvement. Little effort, however, has been made to establish the relationship between involvement and a cultural breakdown of international markets. The strategic management application of inter and intra-national food involvement, therefore, requires investigation.

From the issues identified above, an information gap has been revealed in cross-frontier consumer behaviour in the food retail environment. Specifically, the use of cultural consumer involvement levels for the purposes of strategic international food retail development (Figure 5.2). Hence, the following points, identified from the information gap, can be raised:

- the effect of culture on consumer purchase involvement with food;
- the interface of retail stores and food shoppers in terms of whether purchase criteria and store operations and strategy are complementary.

Figure 5.2 Summary of Research Problem



Research Philosophy

There are two broad paradigms in marketing: positivism and phenomenologicalism (Kuhn, 1970). The positivist paradigm (also labelled the empiricist or objectivist view of knowledge) attempts to apply the methods and principles of the natural science model to the study of consumer behaviour (e.g. Ehrenberg, 1988; Hunt, 1993). The phenomenological paradigm (referred to as the social constructionist, interpretivist or subjectivist view) defines consumer research as a way of interpreting the inter-subjective meanings through which consumers view the world (e.g. Buttle, 1994; Peter and Olsen, 1989). As detailed in Table 5.1, these two paradigms are distinguished from each other in terms of the philosophical assumptions, theories, goals and methods each bring to the marketing management process (for a review see Buttle, 1994; Heath, 1992).

A positivist philosophy has been adopted to empirically test similarities and differences in cultures and buyer behaviour for the purpose of marketing strategy, expressly market segmentation and targeting. Thus, in-depth, qualitative observations would be less helpful for marketing management than the discovery of general consumer trends for application to retail international development strategies. Expressly, the methodology of psychometrics has been utilised; the design, administration and interpretation of quantitative tests for the measurement of psychological variables. Methodological pluralism, however, is strived for, in terms of the use of qualitative research to develop and refine the quantitative.

Table 5.1 Key Features of Positivist and Phenomenological Paradigms

	Positivist Paradigm	**Phenomenological Paradigm**
Basic beliefs	➪ The world is external and objective ➪ Observer is independent. ➪ Science is value-free.	➪ The world is socially constructed & subjective. ➪ Observer is part of what observed. ➪ Science is driven by human interests.
Researcher should:	➪ Focus on facts. ➪ Look for causality & fundamental laws. ➪ Reduce phenomena to simplest elements. ➪ Formulate hypotheses & then test them.	➪ Focus on meanings. ➪ Try to understand what is happening. ➪ Look at the totality of each situation. ➪ Develop ideas through induction from data.
Preferred methods include:	➪ Operationalising concepts so that they can be measured. ➪ Taking large samples.	➪ Using multiple methods to establish different views of phenomena. ➪ Small samples investigated in depth or over time.

Statement of Hypotheses

Popper (1935) argues that theories should be tested by a process of attempted falsification (deductive testing), rather than attempted confirmation (inductive testing). The deductive procedure involves the decomposition of theory into the premises that support it, followed by rigorous attempts to show that these premises are 'falsifiable' through experiment of observation. Theories that have high 'falsifiability' that survive this process have a higher likelihood of being true. Even if the theory falls by this process, the final outcome of this falsification may be a modified/alternative theory which has a higher degree of explanatory power. Deductive propositions have, therefore, been formulated to test the theories outlined in Chapters 2 to 4. The deductive propositions are posited in the convention of null hypotheses (Table 5.2).

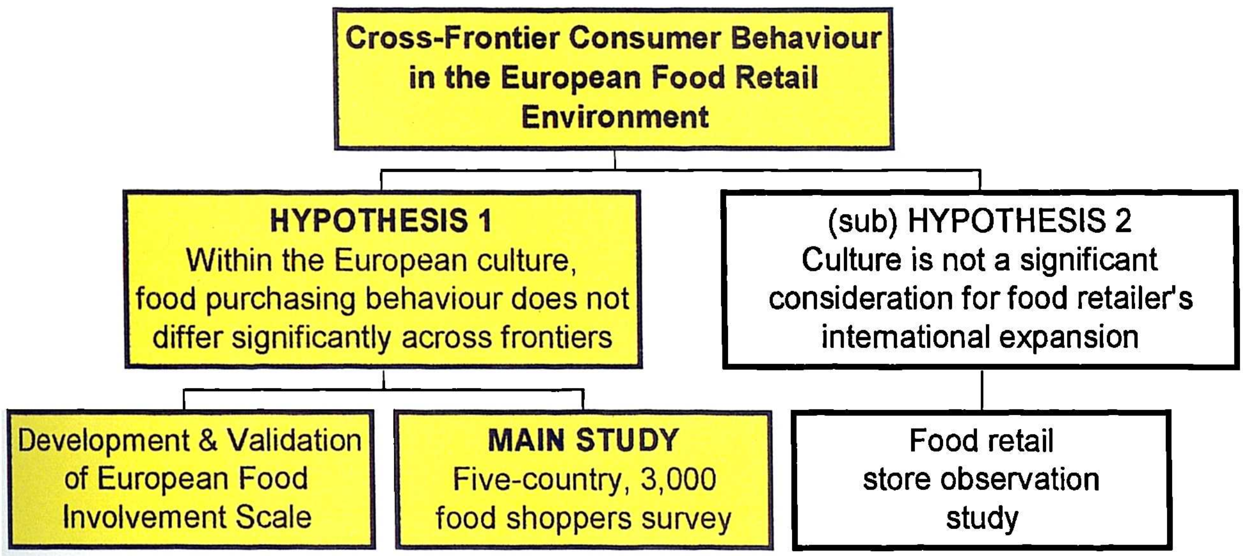
Table 5.2 Summary of Hypotheses

Key Hypotheses	Operational Hypotheses
(1.) Within European culture, food purchasing behaviour does not differ significantly across frontiers.	One culture or subculture does not impose different involvement levels on individuals.
	The level of involvement with a specific food product does not vary according to the culture or subculture.
	Involvement levels do not influence food consumption.
	Involvement levels do not influence food purchasing behaviour.
	Culture does not influence food consumption.
	Culture does not influence food purchasing behaviour.
(2.) Culture is not a significant consideration for food retailers' international expansion.	Food retailers do not perceive cultural differences within European customers' food purchasing behaviour.
	Cultural consumer differences are not reflected by European food retailers.

5.2 Testing the Hypotheses

Figure 5.3 outlines the structure of the empirical research which is implemented to test the identified hypotheses. The first key hypothesis, which is the primary emphasis of the whole study, is tested through a European food shoppers survey. By use of the concept of product purchase involvement, the buying behaviours of different cultural groups of people are investigated. In addition, although an examination of the food retailers' perspective may be thought of as a thesis in itself, some consideration of retail operations and practices are deemed to be appropriate. As the retail/consumer interface is held to be of crucial importance to retail success, the strength of the relationship between consumer behaviour (involvement, consumption and shopping habits) and the response of the retailer, in terms of store layout, is analysed to enhance the findings of the first hypothesis. Hypothesis two, addressed by a store observation study, could have been tested further through an investigation of retailers' international development strategies. Cost and time limitations, however, meant that this area could not be implemented for the purpose of the thesis.

Figure 5.3 The Empirical Framework

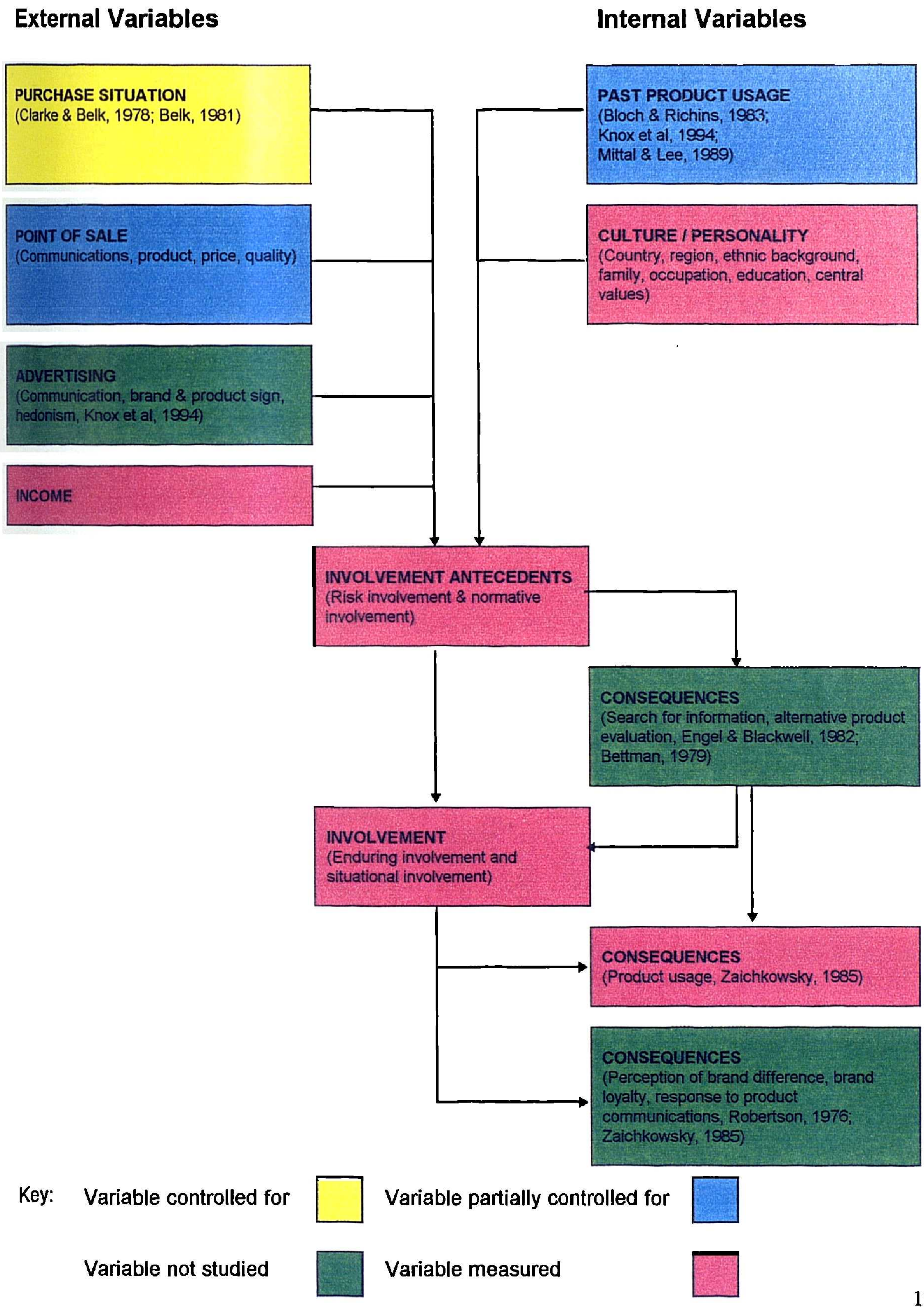


The primary research, therefore, consists of a three-part programme. First, a measurement instrument needed to be created to capture involvement levels across the selected European Union countries. While considerable interest in the involvement construct appears to exist in consumer behaviour and social psychology, there is no common conceptual or even methodological framework to its examination in either discipline. A variety of conceptually distinct definitions have been used, resulting in varied methodological approaches to the study of involvement. The "confused status" (Laaksonen, 1994) of the construct can best be resolved by subjecting it to continued critical analysis with the aim of giving it a more precise conceptual and operational meaning. It is only after the specification of the conceptual nature of involvement that any significant progress can be achieved in developing theoretical and empirical relationships for the construct. A number of involvement measurement scales have been developed (e.g. Zaichkowsky, 1985; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Knox et al, 1994), however, no one scale has been universally accepted or validly tested cross-culturally. The first significant outcome of the research, therefore, is a European food involvement scale which has been validated and found to be reliable across five countries (Chapter 6).

The second part of the research programme identifies the antecedents and consequences of involvement (Figure 5.4), and selected variables are applied into a European food shoppers survey. The five-country survey places involvement in the context of inter and intra-nation shopping patterns and consumption, to test the influence of country and other cultural factors on involvement. Thus, the buying behaviours of different cultural groups of people are identified and the relationships between culture and involvement determined (Chapters 7 and 8).

The final stage of the research programme addresses (sub) hypothesis two: culture is not a significant consideration for food retailers' international expansion. A comparative observation study of food retail stores from selected countries is undertaken. Although the observation study simply provides exploratory findings, it is pertinent to apply the study to the shoppers survey results as an illustration of retailer practice. This research is complimentary to the consumer emphasis, and is intended to provide a more rounded picture for strategic application. The retail research is not the main focus of the study. It does, however, aid in our understanding of consumer behaviour for the purposes of international development.

Figure 5.4 The Context of Involvement



5.3 Cross-National Research Prerequisites

Before the research design can be detailed, a number of issues need to be addressed that arise from the operation of cross-national research. The problems in doing cross-cultural research can be summarised as follows: gaining access to the culture; obtaining equivalent samples of people across cultures, gathering data in homogeneous facilities, and, writing meaningful questions and translating them correctly (Brislin et al, 1973). Due to these problems, relatively few cross-cultural consumer behaviour studies exist. Some studies compare how two or three cultures view certain products but not many look across several cultures (e.g. Zaichkowsky and Sood, 1989; Tigert et al, 1980). Clearly, many cultures need to be compared to provide a broader base for deductions about cultural influences on consumer behaviour.

As with other scientific methods, the underlying goal of cross-cultural research is to discover cause and effect relationships and develop general theoretical statements about them. Specific cross-cultural goals have been identified by Berry (1980):

- To apply present knowledge and hypotheses to other cultural settings, to test their applicability and generalisability;
- To discover behavioural variations and differences within various cultural systems;
- To identify universal generalisations about human behaviour.

The Research Approach

Cross-national research may be approached from two perspectives; emic or etic (Pike, 1966; Berry, 1969). The emic approach holds that attitudinal or behavioural phenomena are expressed in a unique way in each culture. The approach works within a single culture to provide an intensive, internal understanding of one particular culture. In contrast, the etic approach is primarily concerned with universals, it seeks to work extensively across cultures in order to produce cross-cultural generalisations (Table 5.3). These approaches are not a dichotomy, but form a continuum. Research can not be 'cultural' without some notion of emic; and research can not be 'cross' without some notion of etic (Berry, 1980). Market research measurement instruments adapted to each national culture (the emic approach) offer more reliability and provide data with greater internal validity than tests applicable to several cultures (etic). Adaptation, however, is at the expense of cross-national comparability and external validity: results are not transposable to other cultural contexts.

The international marketer is primarily interested in identifying similarities, since these offer the most attractive opportunities for the transfer of products and services and for the integration of strategies across markets. Consequently, adoption of an orientation reflecting an 'etic' philosophy is likely to be preferable in international marketing research. Thus, the prime emphasis of this research is to identify and develop constructs and measures that are as comparable as possible across countries.

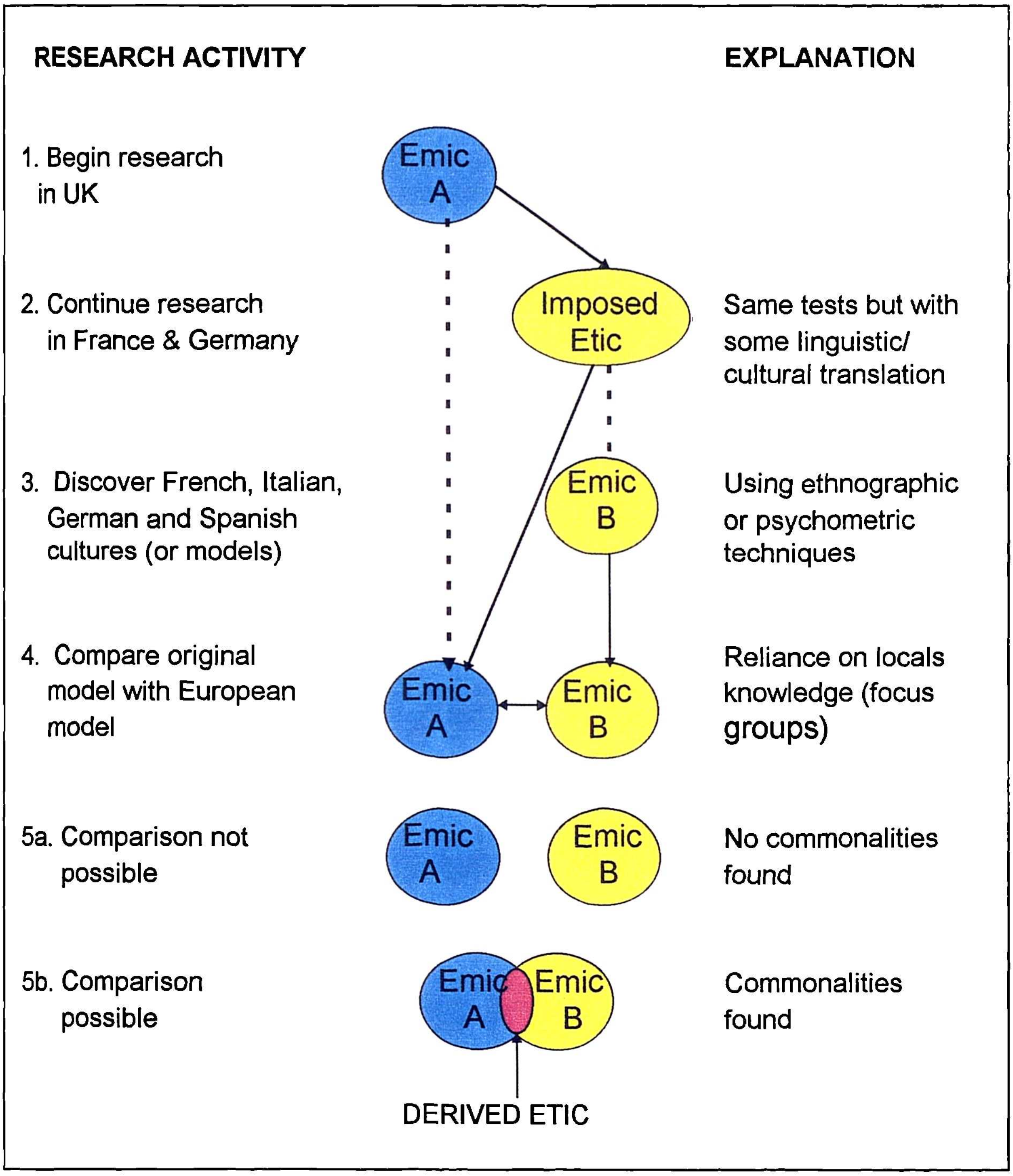
Table 5.3 The Distinction Between Emics and Etics

Emic Approach	Etic Approach
Studies behaviour from within the system.	Studies behaviour from a position outside the system.
Examines only one culture.	Examines many cultures, comparing them.
Structure discovered by the analyst.	Structure created by the analyst.
Criteria are relative to internal characteristics.	Criteria are considered absolute or universal.

Source: Berry, 1969 p.123

In order to ensure comparability between cultural groups a 'derived etic' framework should be adopted (Berry, 1969). Berry (1969) has identified the operationalisation process to reach a 'derived etic' research approach. This process starts with initial research in one's own culture (Step 1 - emic A), moving to an attempt to use the same concept or instrument to study a behaviour in another culture (Step 2 - imposed etic), then to the discovery strategy in another culture (Step 3 - emic B), and finally to the act of comparison of emic A and emic B (Step 4). When a communality is evident (the derived etic), comparison between cultures is possible (in Step 5-2). See Figure 5.5 for the applied framework.

Figure 5.5 Operationalising Emics & Etics in the EU



Source: derived from Berry (1969), p730.

Levels of Cross-Cultural Equivalence

In order to integrate emic studies into a derived etic, the local data from the cultures being compared must fall on some common baseline: that is, there must be dimensional identity (Frijda and Jahoda, 1966). Dimensional identity may be proved by demonstrating that the behaviour under investigation is equivalent in functional, conceptual, and metric terms (Hui & Triandis, 1985).

Comparability is a prerequisite for valid cross-cultural research, and comparability may be attained by demonstrating the equivalence of psychological concepts and data across groups. Cross-cultural equivalence has been explored extensively in the extant literature (e.g. Green and Langeard, 1979; Douglas and Craig, 1983; Leung, 1989; Van Herk and Verhallen, 1995). Table 5.4 details categories of equivalence that must be achieved in order to ensure comparability in cross-cultural consumer research.

Table 5.4 Categories of Cross-Cultural Equivalence

Main Categories	**Sub-Categories**
Conceptual Equivalence	
Functional Equivalence	
Translation Equivalence	➪ Lexical equivalence ➪ Idiomatic equivalence ➪ Grammatical-syntactical equivalence ➪ Experiential equivalence
Metric Equivalence	
Sample Equivalence	➪ Sampling unit equivalence ➪ Sample representativeness ➪ Category equivalence
Data Collection Equivalence	➪ Respondent co-operation equivalence ➪ Contextual equivalence ➪ Response style equivalence (scalar equivalence and item non-response pattern)

Source: adapted from Douglas and Craig, 1983

Conceptual Equivalence

Conceptual equivalence is concerned with the interpretation that individuals place on objects, stimuli or behaviour, and whether these exist or are expressed in similar ways in different countries and cultures. Conceptual equivalence requires the constructs under investigation, and thus the measuring instruments or test materials, to have similar meaning across the social units studied. Conceptual equivalence is determined by investigating construct validity in each culture where cross-cultural research is undertaken. Construct validity is determined by following recognised procedures to ascertain the validity of the underlying constructs at the conceptual level and reliability at the empirical/measurement instrument level (e.g. Babin, 1994; Grunert et al, 1993; Churchill, 1979). Chapter 6 details the procedure of determining the construct validity of involvement.

Functional Equivalence

Functional equivalence

> "exists when the behaviour in question has developed in response to a problem shared by two or more social/cultural groups, even though the behaviour in one society does not appear to be related to its counterpart in another society" (Berry, 1969),

i.e. to ensure that the researcher is measuring the <u>same</u> behaviour across societies. If similar activities perform different functions in different societies, their measures cannot be used for the purpose of comparison (Frijda and Jahoda, 1966). For example, a bicycle may take the same physical form in two societies, but in one it is used for transport and in another it is used as a leisure activity. The bicycle, therefore, may be conceptually equivalent, but not functionally equivalent.

A review of extant literature suggests that there may be food-related functional universals (Bareham, 1995). Food, for example has universal functional value in that it delivers calories, vitamins, and nutrition to the consumer, yet the form food takes, its availability, where food is available and its cost varies from culture to culture. Goldschmidt (1966) argues, however, that when evaluating functional equivalence it does not matter if institutions are the same, what may be compared is the solutions to these problems. For example, retail structures and availability of food products may differ in the EU, however, consumers universally perceive food shopping as a utilitarian function (in contrast, in developing countries, food shopping is perceived as a leisure activity, e.g. Mueller and Broderick, 1995). The selected EU countries are all in an economically developed state. Involvement in food shopping, therefore, may be perceived as functionally equivalent across the European Union.

When aspects of behaviour occurring in differing behaviour settings are functionally equivalent, then a comparative descriptive framework, valid for the different behaviour settings, can be generated from an internal description of behaviour within each setting. Functional equivalence, therefore, is a prerequisite for the cross-cultural comparison of behaviour. Only when this condition has been met, may one attempt to use concepts and develop instruments to gauge behaviours in the different settings (Goldschmidt, 1966; Frijda and Jahoda, 1966).

Translation Equivalence

Translation of the measurement instrument is necessary so that it is understood by respondents in different countries, and has equivalent meaning in each research context. Translation equivalence comprises of lexical, grammatical-syntactical and experiential equivalence (Sechrest et al, 1972). Lexical equivalence is that which is provided by dictionaries. For example, the English adjective 'warm' translates into the French 'chaud'.

Idiomatic equivalence is where the translation utilises appropriate, comparable idioms. An idiom is a linguistic usage that is natural to native speakers. For example, French has two expressions for 'it's warm', either 'il fait chaud' (literally 'it makes warm' meaning 'it's warm (today)') or 'c'est chaud' (meaning it (this object) is warm'). Idioms are most often non-equivalent: the present progressive (i.e. I am doing) has no equivalent in French, except 'je suis en train de ....' which is highly colloquial, not to be used in correct written French.

Grammatical-syntactical equivalence deals with how words are ordered, sentences are constructed and meaning is expressed. English generally proceeds in an active way, starting with the subject followed by the verb and then the complement. Many languages, including French and German, start by explaining the circumstances in relative causes, before they proceed into action.

Experiential equivalence is the degree to which words and sentences mean the same for people in their everyday experiences. For example, 'chaud' translates into 'warm' and 'hot': the French do not experience 'warmth' with two concepts as the English, and the Germans and many others do. Similarly the special experience in the word 'chilly' cannot be adequately rendered into French (Usunier, 1995). Translated terms must refer to real items and real experiences, which are familiar in the source as well as the target cultures.

The back-translation technique (Campbell and Werner, 1970) is the most widely employed method of reaching translation equivalence (mainly lexical and idiomatic) in cross-cultural research. Thus, the involvement measurement instrument has been translated and back-translated by separate bilingual speakers of each of the four foreign countries under study to ensure translation equivalence (Douglas and Craig, 1983; Hui and Triandis, 1985).

Metric Equivalence

The cross-national metric equivalence of a measure exists when the psychometric properties of measures (i.e. internal consistency and dimensionality) exhibit a similar pattern across nations. For subjects not belonging to the same culture, a different meaning may be attached to a given construct, in terms of the underlying variables over which the construct is extrapolated (Poortinga, 1989). If factors are to serve as useful theoretical constructs, it becomes crucial to establish the boundary conditions of factor invariance (Plummer, 1977). Metric equivalence exists when psychometric properties of two or more sets of data or observations from two or more *cultural groups exhibit essentially the same coherence or* structure (Berry, 1980). Unlike functional and conceptual equivalence, metric equivalence can only be determined after the data are analysed. Results should be investigated while simultaneously analysing and checking for the reliability measures of the rating scales. Thus, measurement unreliability is a threat to cross-national comparability (Davis et al, 1981).

Sample Equivalence

Selecting a unit of analysis is a key issue in the conceptualisation of comparative research design. For example, different cultures define what a 'woman' is differently. In some countries a girl becomes a women when she reaches 13 years old, in other countries it is 18 years old. The population for research of a product for women would, therefore, differ substantially in these different countries. It is, therefore, of primary interest to assess, first, the basic equivalent sampling units.

Sample representativeness is essential, in that the sample is representative of the culture from which it is drawn. Douglas and Craig (1983) stress the limited availability of an exhaustive sampling framework which corresponds exactly to the characteristics of the population at a global (multi-country) level. They, therefore, suggest that an empirical method (non-probability sampling procedure) may prove as efficient as probability sampling, when researching cross-culturally. Data can be collected at a reasonable cost, compatible with the objectives of the survey. The basic criterion, therefore, for selecting the sampling procedure(s) will remain the comparability of results across countries. Quotas established from national statistics ensure a representative demographic profile of the countries under study. The food shoppers survey detailed in the previous section utilises a quota, convenience sample utilised due to cost and time limitations. This type of sample, however, places a limitation on the level of representativeness .

Category equivalence relates to the category in which objects or stimuli in the measurement instrument are placed. Relevant product class definitions may, for example, differ from one country to another. In addition, socio-demographic differences may be exhibited, for example an American lawyer and a British barrister are not exactly equivalent. Rather than studying specific brands, the present study investigates involvement with universal staple food categories and thus exhibits category equivalence. Furthermore, occupation and other socio-cultural demographics have been measured in broad universal categories and thus should avoid a lack of category equivalence.

Data Collection Equivalence

Where primary data are concerned, discrepancies in response patterns across countries may cause data unreliability and so limit direct comparison. Respondents may have different levels of secrecy or unwillingness to answer (respondents' co-operation equivalence), or, the context of the data collection process may influence responses differently in that questions are never 'culture-free' (contextual equivalence). For example, in India sex tends to be a taboo subject (Douglas and Craig, 1983). Finally, there is response style equivalence, which is made up of scalar equivalence and item non-response pattern. Scalar equivalence is the determination of whether the respondents view the scale equivalently. Respondents may have different levels of 'courtesy bias' (Van Herk and Verhallen, 1995), i.e. response scores may be inflated and the mean score of the respondents are biased towards the positive end of the scale, or there are significant differences in extreme response style patterns across countries. For example, US respondents tend to respond with more enthusiasm, and, therefore, present a more extreme response style in answering, than the Japanese (Zax and Takashi, 1967).

Item non-response is an important source of bias in cross-national surveys. Respondents may be unwilling to respond to some questions, such as those relating to income or age. For example, in the Czech Republic and Bulgaria, professional status can not be reported. Professional classifications are virtually unknown because Communism stressed worker equality over the past 40 years (Mueller and Broderick, 1995). Additionally, income is unlikely to be recorded accurately, as East Europeans refuse to answer this question or under-report their incomes for fear of being reported to tax authorities (Mueller and Broderick, 1995).

5.4 The Research Design

The empirical research designed to test the developed hypotheses are detailed below. The programme of research is explained, along with the rationale for the methods used. Sampling frames and copies of measurement instruments are provided in the appendices.

European Consumer Involvement Scale Development

In order to examine involvement levels across countries, a reliable and valid measurement instrument had to be constructed. A recognised procedure for developing measuring instruments was adopted (Nunnally, 1967; Churchill, 1979; Bearden et al, 1993) and this procedure is detailed in Chapter 6. Scale development included an extensive literature review to outline scales for inclusion in the initial item pool. In addition, a series of qualitative focus groups of French, German, Italian and Spanish ERASMUS students were carried out to generate culture-specific attitude scales. The pilot scale was tested, using a convenience sample, on eight hundred and eighty-seven respondents across four categories of food products on French, German and British undergraduate business students (Appendices 5.1 and 5.2). The majority of respondents were British students, and the pilot was not able to survey Spanish and Italian students due to limited access to continental European universities and because of cost and time restraints (Table 5.5). The sample size did, however, meet the minimum requirements for the use of scale development statistical tests. Finally, the model was validated on the full consumer survey outlined below.

Table 5.5 Country Breakdown of Pilot Sample

Country	Number of Respondents
UK	620
France	160
Germany	107
TOTAL	**887**

It might be argued that the developed involvement scale follows an imposed etic approach, in that the model was developed in the UK and was imposed across other countries and, therefore, may not be conceptually equivalent. To counter this argument, the initial item pool included published scales selected from a number of international authors; British, American and French. Additionally, items were created by focus group respondents from five countries. Furthermore, confirmatory factor analysis was undertaken to determine whether the empirical data was a good fit to the model, and whether a better model could be identified, and thus established conceptual equivalence.

Indeed, satisfactory confirmatory results demonstrate an acceptable derived etic. The term acceptable is used because purists would inevitably argue for an absolutely distinct factor solution for each culture. The argument for the established derived etic is to enable comparison of a number of food products across several nations. This comparison requires a degree of communality in the scale instrument.

European Food Shoppers Survey

The purpose of the consumer research was to investigate whether the assumption is correct that a particular consumer behaviour construct, involvement, would function similarly in seemingly comparable cultures across food products. The null hypothesis is that there will be no difference in the level of involvement attributable to culture. The research specifies the context of involvement in terms of conceptual modelling. The involvement measurement scale is administered in the form of a food shoppers survey to determine involvement levels, shopping habits and consumption across a range of food. The selection of food products studied was based on factors relevant to:

- the sample,
- commercial contacts, and
- marketing across countries.

Firstly, the food products are available and are used in all of the selected EU countries, and are considered potentially 'global'. Secondly, the products are relevant to food shoppers of supermarkets and used by both sexes. Finally, products were selected to represent key staple food categories and thus provide a potential 'food involvement' score.

Eight food products were selected of which half were branded and half were generic products: cheese, frozen ready-made meals, fresh ground coffee, yoghurt, fresh vegetables, fresh fruit, fresh red meat, fresh poultry. The food products were divided into half and administered in the form of questionnaire A and questionnaire B. Each respondent completed one questionnaire only. The administration of the questionnaires in this way reduced respondent fatigue and at the same time allowed a broad sample of food products to be researched.

Country Selection Justification

Typically with primary data gathering, the problem of country selection is dealt with according to some combination of theoretical and pragmatic considerations (Elder, 1976). Much of previous cross-cultural research has used dramatically different cultures (e.g. Albaum & Peterson, 1984) thereby increasing the likelihood of finding differences. Although these research efforts are important for examining the generalisability of consumer behaviour constructs, it may be equally relevant to demonstrate the existence of differences in consumer decision-making between cultures that are less dramatically different. For example, international business expansions often begins in countries fairly similar culturally to the country of origin. An inherent risk in developing into countries with similar cultures is that companies may erroneously assume consumer behaviour patterns will be the same. The European Union culture was, thus, deemed appropriate as a seemingly "homogeneous" geographical area.

Countries have been selected in part on the basis of retail development and structure but also accounting for wider cultural patterns, processes and experiences; for example, volume of food consumption and food spending as a percentage of Gross National Product are significant variables for international development. Furthermore, it is interesting to compare *North/South*, *and East/West* geographical divides. Thus, the research has investigated consumer behaviour differences across five countries: the UK , France, Spain, Germany and Italy.

National differences are of course not the only source of variation in consumer behaviour across different geographical locations. Any geographic division may be taken as a base for segmenting marketing variables. Regional differences within countries, however, even if perceived more clearly by nationals than by foreigners, are not very strong compared to international differences. For instance, Saegaert et al (1978) do not find significant differences in 'fad food' use among Anglo and Mexican Americans. Calantone et al (1985) find English Québecois women to be more similar to French Québecois women than to Ontario English women (all of these people being Canadians) in the benefits they seek from a brassière. Their findings support the idea of the assimilation model, where the cultural values of the immigrants tend to merge with those of the locally dominant cultural group (Usunier, 1993). Regionally representative cities, however, are also used as an additional variable of 'culture' as defined in Chapter 3.

Within each country, therefore, two cities were chosen to represent intra-nation differences. The questionnaires were translated and back-translated by two bilingual ERASMUS students for each of the four foreign countries to ensure consistency across languages and therefore translation equivalence (Appendix 5.3).

Sample Size

As a rough guide there should be at least five to ten times as many observations as there are variables (Malhoutra, 1993). There are twelve variables on the food involvement scale on each questionnaire. Sample sizes, therefore, of 150 for questionnaire A and 150 for questionnaire B in each of the selected cities were appropriate for each of the country studies. The final sample consisted of 2,727 responses, with approximately 600 respondents in each country (Table 5.6). Unfortunately, in Italy only 315 questionnaires were able to be collected in one city due to limited access to Italian-speaking interviewers.

Table 5.6 Country Breakdown of Food Shoppers Survey

Country	Number of Respondents
UK	607
France	603
Spain	602
Germany	600
Italy	315
TOTAL	**2727**

Sample Implementation

The interviewer-administered surveys were located outside mid-range supermarkets whose parent company has internationalised in some form (Appendix 5.4). The results may, therefore, be perceived as biased towards shoppers of those supermarkets. Although this limitation is recognised, two points are considered to justify this method of implementation: firstly, the use of quotas and the comparison of the shoppers' profiles to national statistics ensure an element of population representativeness. Secondly, the objective of the thesis is to explore consumer behaviour within the environment of internationalising food retailers. The bias towards shoppers at these retailers is, therefore, appropriate.

The supermarkets chosen, were identified on the basis of 'mid-range' and then were randomly selected from local telephone directories. The definition of supermarkets differ across countries (Table 5.7) For the purposes of this study, however, 'mid-range' supermarkets are defined as non-discount, non-premium, self-service food stores with greater than 500 square metres of trading floor space. The French and Spanish equivalent of a large British supermarket, therefore, is a hypermarket. The terms 'supermarket' and 'hypermarket' are thus used interchangeably.

Table 5.7 Definitions of Supermarkets Compared

Country	Definition	Source
UK	Self-service grocery store with greater than 500 square metres of sales area.	The Grocer Marketing Directory (William Reed, 1996)
Italy	A retail operation in the food sector organised primarily as a self service store with payment made at checkouts, with a sales area above 400 square metres and selling a vast range of mainly pre-packaged products as well as some non-food and domestic goods.	Italian Ministry of Trade & Commerce (IGD, 1992a)
Spain	An outlet of up to 2,500 square metres with over five checkout counters.	Nielson (IGD, 1992b)
France	A retail establishment.... selling principally food... with a sales area of between 400 and 2,499 square metres. Hypermarkets are greater than 2,500 square metres.	IGD, 1992c
Germany	A self service outlet with a minimum sales area of 400 square metres which retails groceries including fresh produce. The non-product range share must not account for more than 25% of total sales area.	IGD, 1992d

Sampling Method

The selection of observations was largely a convenience sample due to the lack of an accurate and comparable European sampling frame (Douglas and Craig, 1983). Food purchasing is influenced by gender, working status, age, income and marital status (Zeitaml, 1985). Quotas, therefore, of gender and age, were produced from published national statistics (Table 5.8). Although quotas were unable to be created of working status and income, the respondents' profile on the questionnaire addressed these categories. The samples may not be considered totally representative of the populations of the different countries. They are, however, relatively homogeneous in a matched-samples sense (i.e. in terms of gender and age) and are considered appropriate for cross-national theory testing.

Table 5.8 Breakdown of Quotas

Age by Gender	15-19	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+	TOTAL
Female	18	48	42	39	33	30	210
Male	9	21	18	18	12	12	90
TOTAL	27	69	60	57	45	42	300
Female	21	45	45	42	33	30	216
Male	9	18	18	15	12	12	84
TOTAL	30	63	63	57	45	42	300
Female	24	48	39	36	33	30	210
Male	12	21	18	15	12	12	90
TOTAL	36	69	57	51	45	42	300
Female	18	45	45	39	24	33	204
Male	9	21	21	18	12	15	96
TOTAL	27	66	66	57	36	48	300
Female	21	45	39	36	36	33	210
Male	9	21	18	15	15	12	90
TOTAL	30	66	57	51	49	45	300

Key: UK France Spain

Germany Italy

European Food Retail Stores Observation Study

The interface of retail stores and food shoppers was examined through an observation study. Research investigates whether purchase criteria and retail store operations are complementary. The observation study of retail store layouts explores range and mix of food products and floor space product allocation (Appendix 5.6). Comparing these results with the consumer survey, operating strategies are compared to consumer behaviour to determine whether retailers are responding appropriately.

The observation study was initially carried out in France during May 1995. Observations in the UK, Spain and Germany were implemented in November and December 1995. Stores chosen had to be complementary to the consumer survey, thus mid-range supermarkets that belonged to internationalising food retailers were selected. The stores were randomly chosen from the local telephone directory in a representative geographical area that fulfilled the selection criteria. Fourteen stores were observed, with a minimum of three stores per country. Limited contacts made expansion of the observation study into Italy unfeasible (Appendix 5.5).

As only fourteen stores were observed, the study was not representative of the total population of internationalising food retailers. Additionally, store layouts are continually changing throughout the year. Furthermore, the measurements collected are mainly rough estimates, due to limited time and access to the stores. These points are recognised as major limitations to the observation study. The study is valuable, however, in terms of a 'snapshot' illustration of retailer activity. Matching the observation study with the consumer results provides interesting, though tentative, findings.

5.5 The Progressive Structure of Analyses and Organisation of Results

The results of the empirical research are detailed in the following four chapters. The techniques to analyse the data are outlined below, and summarised in Table 5.9, to provide an overview of the organisation of the results.

Table 5.9 Summary of Statistical Analyses Implemented and Structure of Results

Results Chapters' Numbers & Titles	Statistical Analyses Implemented
6.) The Development and Validation of a Food Involvement Scale Across the EU	➪ Reliability analyses ➪ Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses ➪ Convergent & discriminant validity analyses
7.) Food Shopping Patterns, Levels of Involvement and Consumption Across the EU	➪ Summary & descriptive statistics ➪ Exploratory factor analysis ➪ Analyses of variance
8.) Modelling the Structural Relationships of Involvement By Culture	➪ Structural equation modelling
9.) Formulating a Cross-Cultural Marketing Strategy	➪ Analyses of variance ➪ Cluster analysis

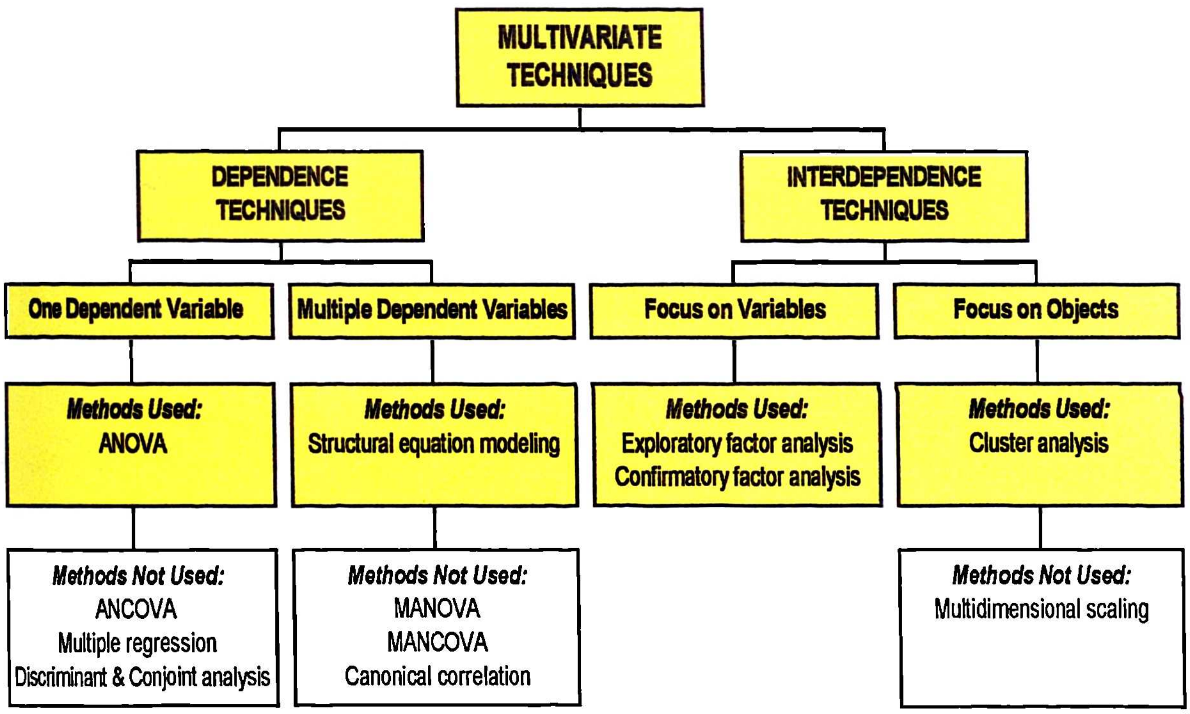
The Use of Appropriate Statistical Tests

As detailed in the research design the consumer survey may be perceived as a 'pseudo-random' sample in that it is as representative and as random as possible within the time and cost restraints. A non-probability quota sample, however, was implemented with a random selection of shoppers, within each quota, outside of supermarkets. Parametric tests rely on the assumption that there is a distribution with known parameters/characteristics. According to the central limit theorem, a random sample will approximate a normal distribution as sample size increases (e.g. Morse, 1993). A normal distribution has known parameters, parametric tests can, therefore, be computed on large non-random samples (e.g. Townsend, 1990). When parameters of a population are not known, nonparametric tests are computed. Parametric tests, however, have been found, through Monte Carlo simulations, to be relatively robust in that there is no evidence that parametric tests falsely detect significant results that nonparametric tests would not (e.g. Townsend and Ashby, 1984). Both parametric tests (e.g. factor analysis) and non-parametric tests (e.g. cluster analysis) have, therefore, been deemed appropriate to apply to the consumer sample.

For the purposes of analysing the consumer survey, univariate, bivariate and multivariate techniques are applied. Univariate or bivariate analyses apply statistical methods that deal with one or two variables and analyse the mean and variance of a single variable or the pair-wise relationship between two variables. In contrast, multivariate analyse apply methods that simultaneously deal with three or more variables and analyse the relationship among these variables.

Multivariate techniques can be classified further into dependence and interdependence techniques. The dependence methods test for the presence or absence of relationships between two sets of variables, where the set of independent variables affect the set of dependent variables individually and/or jointly. The techniques, therefore, only test for the presence or absence of relationships between two sets of variables. When there are no independent and dependent variables in a data set, analysis of how and why the variables are related among themselves can determined. Statistical methods for analysing these types of data sets are called interdependence methods. Figure 5.6 summarises the multivariate techniques utilised.

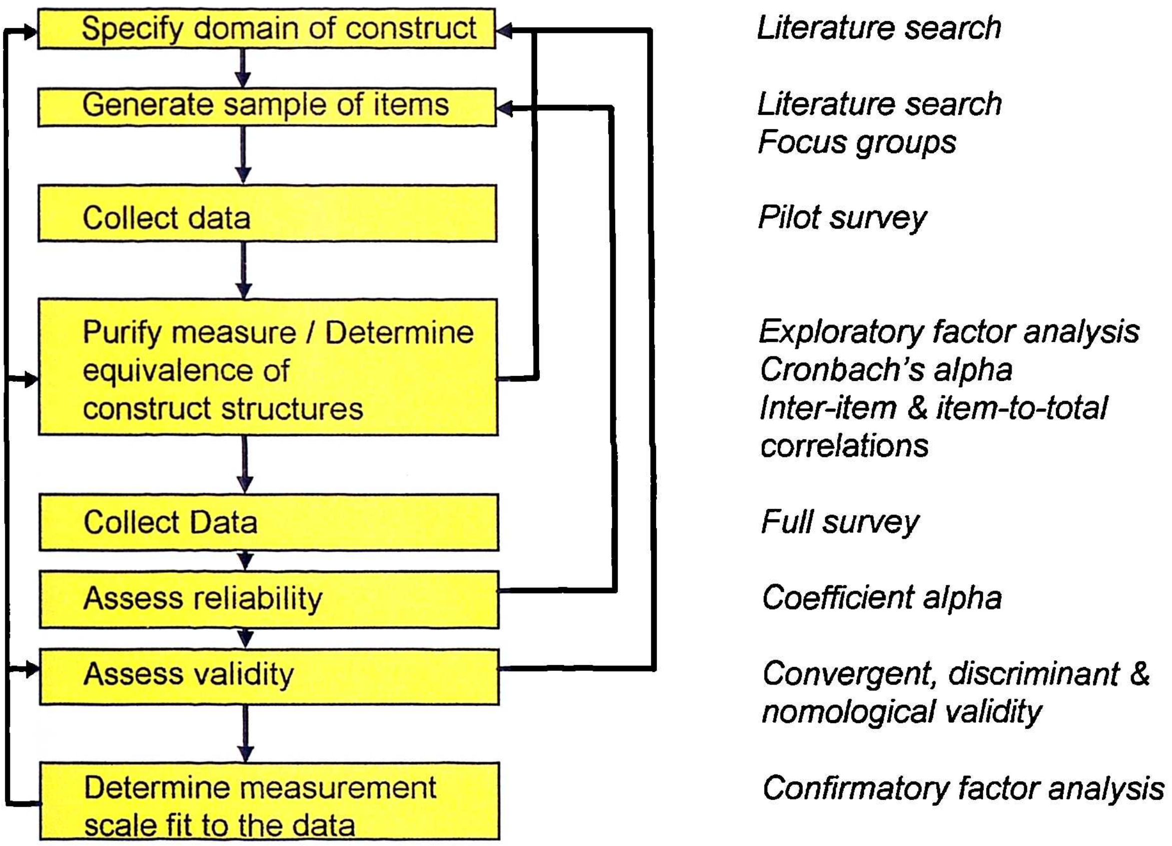
Figure 5.6 Overview of Multivariate Statistical Tests Utilised



Statistical Techniques for Scale Development and Validation

The first major output of the thesis is the creation of a European Food Involvement measurement scale. The results comprise of construct identification, scale development, scale refinement, and scale validation stages. Several sources outline scale development procedures and evaluative criteria of latent variable scales (e.g. Babin, 1994; Robinson et al, 1991; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Churchill, 1979). Figure 5.7 summarises the procedure for developing and validating measures of marketing constructs. The procedure is implemented in Chapter 6. An overview of the process and statistical techniques utilised in the procedure, however, are detailed below.

Figure 5.7 Procedure for Developing & Validating Multi-Item Measurement Scales



Source: adapted from Churchill, 1979

Once the construct domain has been identified, an initial item pool generated and the pilot study implemented, the scale can be purified through data reduction techniques such as exploratory factor analysis and examination of item-to-total and inter-item correlations. To compare results across different cultural populations the underlying construct being measured should be the same for different groups. That is, there is an assumption of the invariance of the internal structure of the constructs of interest. The most widely used statistical technique to demonstrate structural equivalence is exploratory factor analysis (Malhoutra, 1993; Watkins, 1989). Exploratory factor analysis summarises the interrelationships amongst a set of variables, as an aid to conceptualisation (Gorsuch, 1983). The cross-cultural researcher can then identify whether or not the dimensions or factors are similar across each country (Douglas and Craig, 1983).

The basic exploratory factor analysis model assumes that original perceptual ratings about an object, in this case involvement with food products, are generated by a small number of latent variables, or factors, and that the variance observed in each original perceptual variable is accounted for by a set of common factors. Relationships among sets of many interrelated variables are examined and represented in terms of few underlying factors. The principle factors account for the correlations observed among the original variables and all the variation between the ratings of stimuli are attributed to the underlying factors. Commonly, an orthogonal rotation of the factor solution is used, which assumes that the factors are independent of each other, and provides ease of interpretation. The involvement scale constructed, however, taps different facets of the same concept. The factors should not, therefore, be expected a priori to be orthogonal. An oblique factor rotation, which allows for correlations between the factors, was thus computed and compared to an orthogonal solution. Identical factor solutions and variance extracted were found, and, therefore, an orthogonal rotation was retained for convenience (details provided in Chapter 6).

Reliability is the degree to which measures are free from random error and, therefore, provide consistent data. While there are broadly two types of reliability (test-retest and internal consistency) and several types of reliability coefficients, coefficient alpha is widely used in marketing studies to assess internal consistency because it can be estimated by administering the scale at a single time (Peter, 1981). Coefficient alpha was developed by Cronbach (1951), and is formulised as:

$$\alpha=\left(\frac{k}{k-1}\right)\left(1-\sum_{i=1}^{k}\sigma_i^2 \Big/ \sigma_s^2\right)$$

Where: k = the number of items in the scale

σ_s^2 = the variance of the item i

σ_s^2 = the variance of the scale

Internal consistency reliability compares different samples of items being used to measure the same phenomenon during the same time period. The square root of the coefficient alpha is the estimated correlation of the k-item test with errorless true scores (Nunnally, 1967). Thus, a low coefficient alpha indicates the sample of items performs poorly in capturing the construct which motivated the measure. Conversely, a large alpha indicates that the k-item test correlates well with true scores.

Specifying the domain of the construct, generating items that exhaust the domain and subsequently purifying the resulting scale should produce a measure which has content or face validity. Consistency is necessary but not sufficient, however, for construct validity (Nunnally, 1967). Construct validity is established by determining the extent to which the measure highly correlates with other measures designed to measure the same construct (convergent validity), and the extent to which the measure is distinct and is not simply a reflection of some other variable (discriminant validity). To test simultaneously convergent and discriminant validity, both exploratory factor analysis and multigroup confirmatory factor analysis can be computed. To have convergent validity, the scale of each subconstruct of involvement should correlate highly with each other. Although the dimensions are distinct they are still measuring the same construct. To ensure discriminant validity, a scale should not load on the same factor as another scale, i.e. the scale of each subconstruct should be uni-dimensional (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

For cross-cultural researchers, the comparison of factor structures across cultures is very important. Exploratory factor analysis is a means of exploring multiple solutions to search for the most meaningful factor structure. By then using the hypothesis testing procedure, confirmatory factor analysis, the researcher is able to specify competing factor-analytic models, to test their relative abilities to fit the data and to compare the models according to their goodness of fit. Confirmatory factor analysis can, therefore, be used to compare the equivalence of factor structures in different cultures. There are a number of software packages that include confirmatory factor analysis as a component of causal modelling. The oldest and most widely used (and, therefore, tested) of these is LISREL (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1984). Version 6.0 of LISREL, available on SPSS for Windows has been utilised.

In Chapter 6, therefore, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses have been used in involvement scale development and validation to compare the equivalence of factor structures across the five European countries, to determine goodness of fit of the factor structures to the data, and to validate the measurement tool in terms of nomological, convergent and discriminant validity (Figure 5.8, see Chapter 6). Metric equivalence and the stability of the relations among constructs are viewed as necessary prerequisites for testing mean differences across countries (Durvasula et al, 1993; Berry, 1980; Irvine and Carroll, 1980; Triandis, 1983). Exploratory and confirmatory analyses were, therefore, necessary for the comparison of results in Chapter 7.

Statistical Analysis of the Food Shoppers Survey

Results from the food shoppers survey were divided into two sections. The first section analysed food shopping patterns and consumption using simple summary and descriptive statistics. Shoppers' profiles were compared with the sample quotas and with national published demographic statistics to determine the level of representativeness of the sample. The factor scores computed from exploratory factor analysis in Chapter 6 were used in analyses of variance to compare the means of the dimensions of involvement by country and other cultural and demographic factors.

The second stage of the analysis of the food shoppers survey utilised structural equation modelling to determine the relationships between the variables under investigation. Firstly, the structural links between a predictor of behaviour, involvement and a selected behavioural output were tested to determine the significance of involvement for marketing strategy (Figures 5.9, see Chapter 8). Secondly, using multi-group analysis, the structural links were contrasted by country group to identify whether culture imposes different strengths on the relationship of involvement and behaviour.

Structural equation modelling is a comprehensive statistical approach to testing hypotheses about relations among observed and latent variables. There are two components of the general structural equation model: the measurement model and the structural model. The measurement model is that component of the general model in which latent variables are prescribed. Latent variables are unobserved variables, or factors, implied by the covariances among two or more indicators. Confirmatory factor analysis makes use of only the measurement model component of the general structural equation model. The structural model is that component of the general model that prescribes relationships between latent variables and observed variables that are not the indicators of latent variables. Structural equation modelling is used rather than multiple regression because multiple regression is a structural model without latent variables and is limited to a single outcome. It does not take account of the measurement errors in a attitudinal scale. This error can produce bias in the statistical estimates, and can undermine significance tests. Thus, it becomes important to use statistical methods that can accommodate measurement error, and structural equation modelling, through LISREL, satisfies this requirement.

Store Observation Analysis

Analysis of the observation study is mainly in a qualitative format in terms of comparing store layouts across countries. Summary and descriptive analyses are provided of shelf space and number of brands/products in each product range for comparison. As the study is utilised as an illustration of retail activity only, rather than a key research output, the results are provided in an appendix (Appendix 7.1). To place the consumer survey results in a retail context, however, the store analysis is applied to involvement means, consumption and shopping patterns in Chapter 7.

A Framework for Cross-Cultural Marketing Strategy

The final major result of the thesis is the development and application of a framework for cross-cultural marketing strategy. The framework has been developed from ideas and findings in the previous results chapters to provide a structure from which to base international decision-making. Utilising both analysis of variance and cluster analysis, summaries of results are provided as applications of the framework.

Cluster analysis was used in order to identify groups of consumers that exhibited either high or low involvement. Cluster analysis groups observations into clusters such that each cluster is as homogeneous as possible with respect to the clustering variables. The resulting clusters of objects should then exhibit high internal (within-cluster) homogeneity and high external (between-cluster) heterogeneity and thus can be used as the first step in identifying target markets of highly involved consumers. Analysis of variance was utilised to compare levels of homogeneity in consumer food involvement across the EU.

Figure 5.8 A Path Diagram of Involvement Measurement Specifications for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

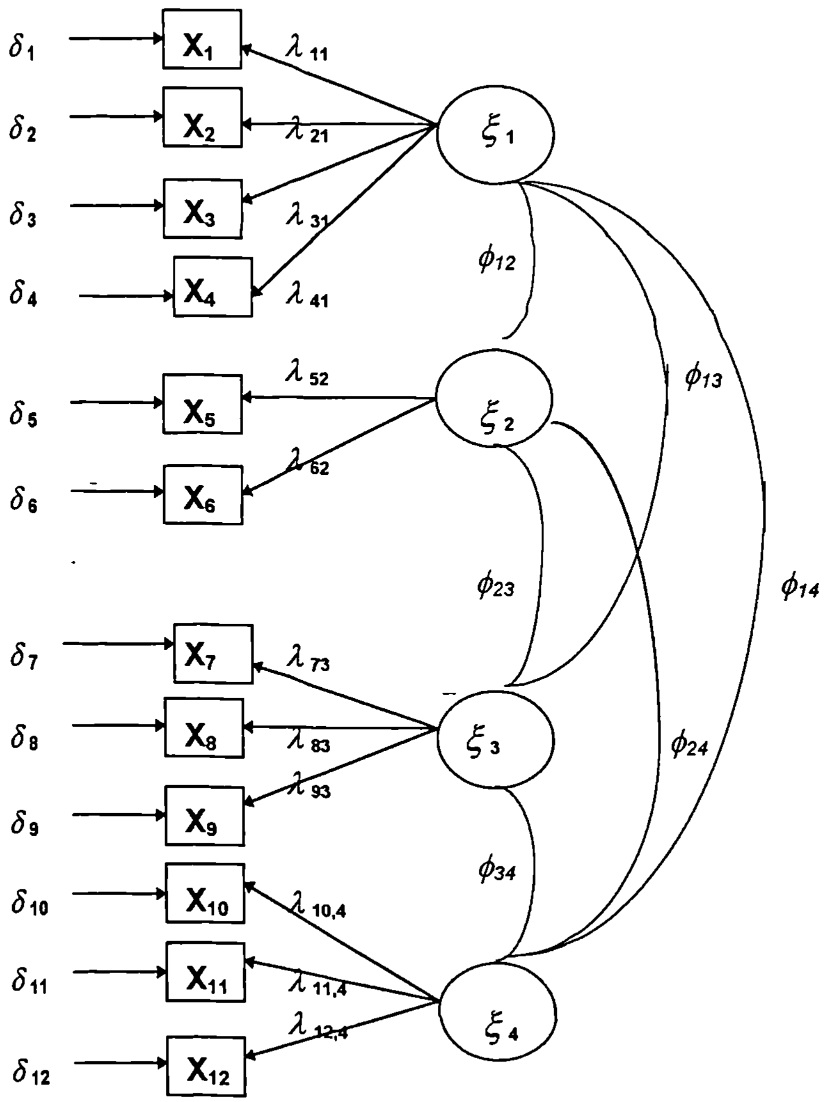
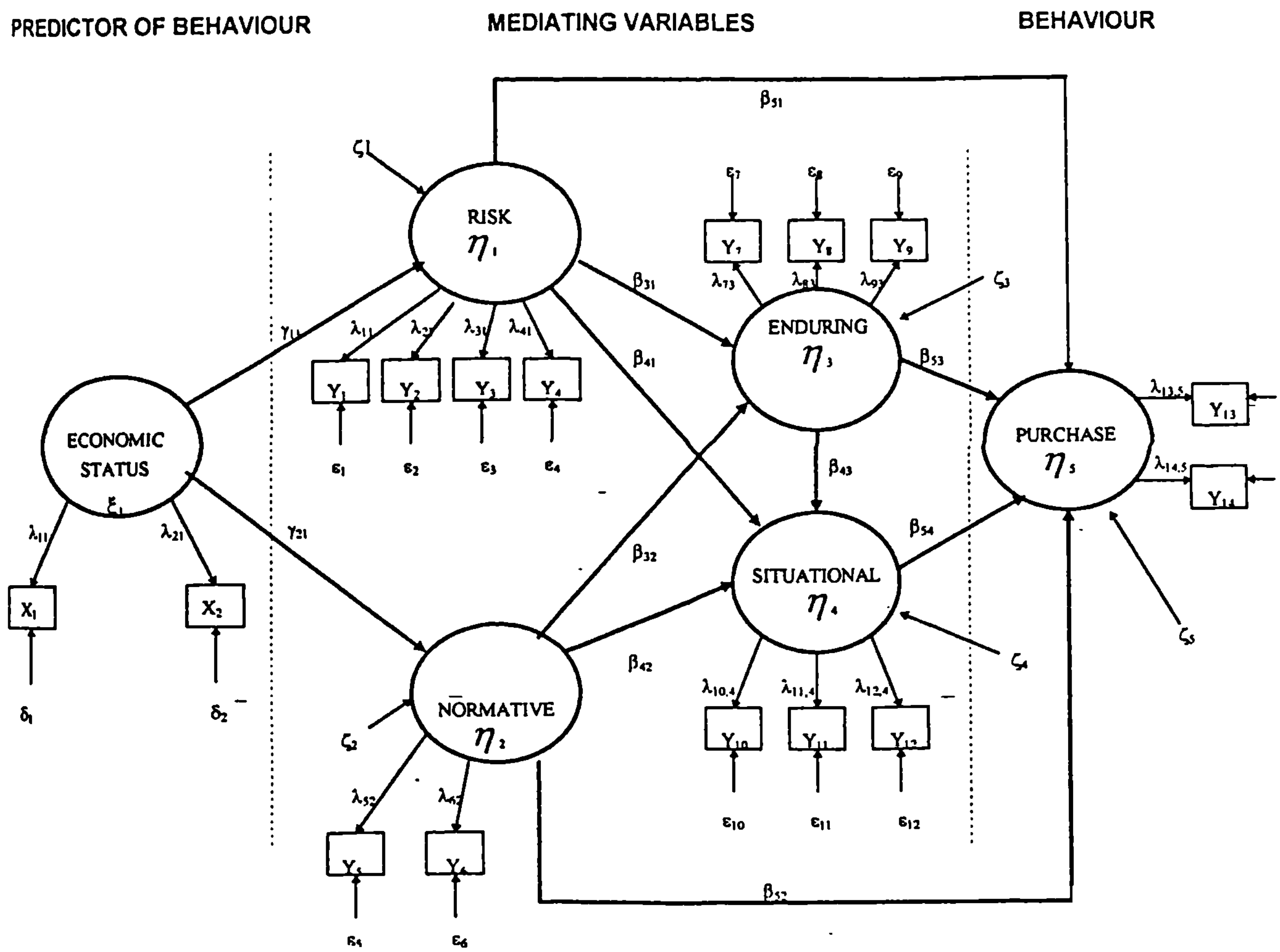


Figure 5.9 A Path Diagram of the Context of Involvement



5.6 Summary

The methodology chapter presented a framework to view the empirical research. Deductive hypotheses have been identified and developed, cross-cultural research approaches and prerequisites have been ascertained, and the research design has been presented in detail. Specifically, the three-stage research design, (consisting of measurement instrument development, a food shoppers survey, and a store observation), tests two key hypotheses:

- Within European culture, food purchasing behaviour does not differ significantly across frontiers, and
- Culture is not a significant consideration for food retailers' international expansion.

In addition, the types of statistical analyses implemented and justifications for use have been detailed and the organisation of the results chapters have been presented. The following three chapters detail the findings from the empirical research, commencing with measurement scale development and validation in Chapter 6. A fourth chapter (Chapter 9) syntheses the empirical findings into a framework for determining cross-cultural marketing strategies.

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CHAPTER 6

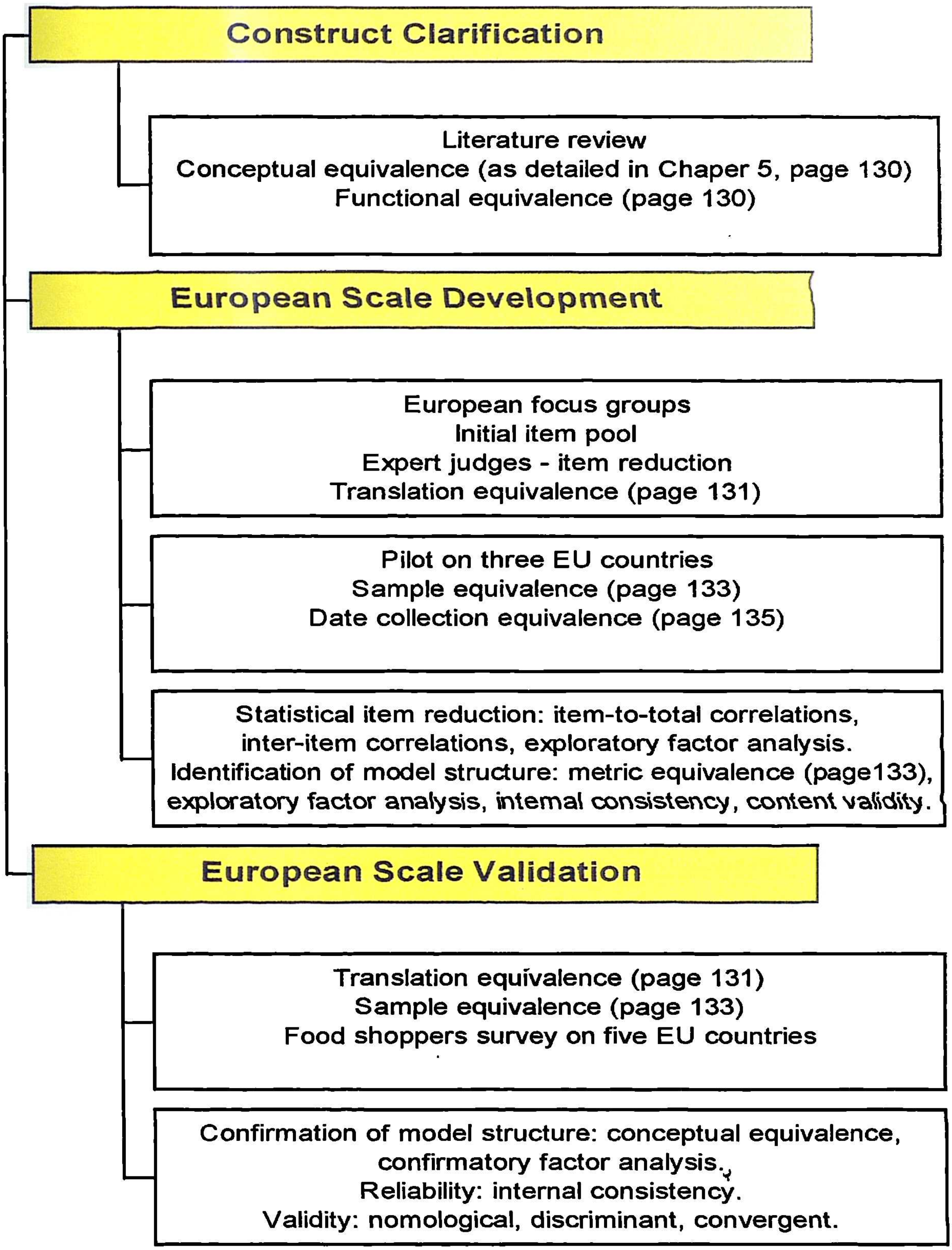
THE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF A EUROPEAN FOOD INVOLVEMENT SCALE

6.0 Introduction

In order to test the hypotheses developed in Chapter 5, a measurement instrument for consumer involvement needed to be identified to administer across the five selected EU countries. The literature review revealed that no measurement instrument of involvement has been tested on food across Europe (e.g. Goldsmith and Emmert, 1991; Mittal, 1989; Zaichkowshy, 1985; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985). More important, while considerable interest in the involvement construct exists in consumer behaviour and social psychology, there appears to have been no common conceptual or methodological framework for its examination in either discipline. Laaksonen (1994), therefore, has suggested that the 'confused status' of the involvement construct might be best resolved by subjecting it to continued critical analysis.

Chapter 6 follows an established procedure to develop and validate a measurement instrument (Laaksonen, 1994; Nunnally, 1967; Churchill, 1979; Bearden et al, 1993). The procedure involves three key stages: construct clarification, scale development, and scale validation. Figure 6.1 outlines the procedure utilised. To investigate involvement levels across countries the nature of the construct first needs to be clarified. An attempt is made to organise the heterogeneity prevalent in involvement research to determine its 'content'. Construct clarification, therefore, is the first stage in instrument development. The second stage involves the development of a measurement scale and the identification of a model structure. The applicability of the developed model is confirmed in the final stage, together with reliability and validity testing. The three-stage approach achieves a 'derived etic' research approach (Berry, 1969) as outlined in Chapter 5, and, therefore, produces a cross-culturally equivalent measurement instrument.

Figure 6.1 A Framework To Develop and Validate a European Measurement Instrument of Consumer Involvement With Food Purchasing



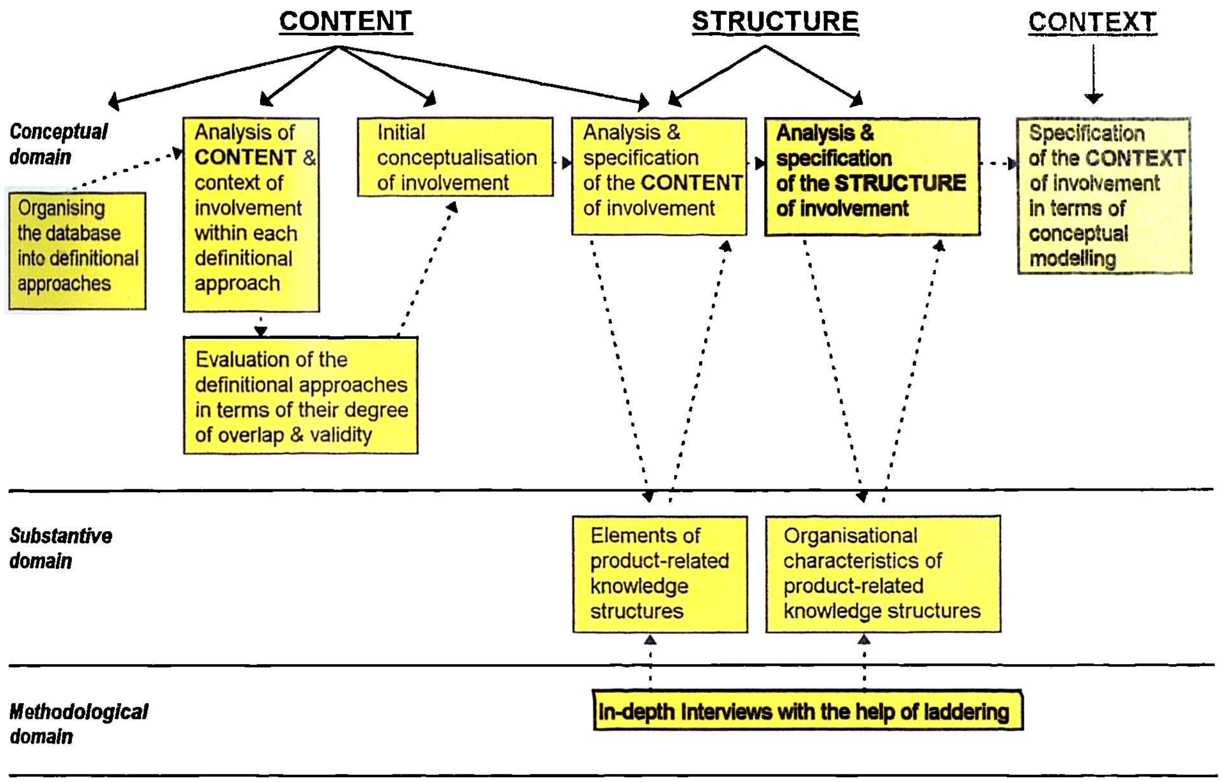
6.1 Construct Clarification

Guidelines for evaluating theories (e.g. Mittelstaedt, 1971; Zaltman et al, 1973) and for developing and evaluating measuring instruments are available (e.g. Nunnally, 1967; Churchill, 1979; Bearden et al, 1993), but the formation and evaluation of the theoretical meaning and value of a construct seems to be a relatively neglected area of research (Laaksonen, 1994). In order to specify the meaning of a construct, both theoretical and empirical analyses are needed (e.g. Cook and Campbell, 1976), and, to achieve this aim the process of construct clarification developed by McKennell (1974) is utilised. McKennell (1974) has separated *construct clarification* into three areas:

- *content* (variables or indicators representing the construct);
- *structure* (covariance among indicators and resulting dimensions of the construct); and,
- *context* (construct validation explicating the meaning of measurements by relating them to other variables) (see Figure 6.2).

The implementation of the construct clarification process has been divided into two sections. Chapter 6 details the content and structure stages through a literature review and the development and validation of a measurement scale. Chapters 7 and 8 investigate the context stage of the process through an examination of the relationships between involvement, its antecedents and consequences.

Figure 6.2 A Construct Clarification Process



Source: Laaksonen, 1994

6.2 The Content of Involvement

Despite the many and varied definitions of consumer involvement that have emerged in the literature (see Chapter 4), two common ideas are evident; involvement is a multi-dimensional construct (McQuarrie and Munson 1986; Laurent and Kapferer 1985); and is a motivational force which can help explain various behavioural outcomes, (for example, number and type of choice criteria, extensiveness of information search, length of decision-making process, variety seeking, and brand switching). The multi-dimensional aspect of involvement has been demonstrated by various researchers who suggest that the dimensions include:

- *normative involvement* - the importance of product class to values, emotions, and the ego (Higie and Feick, 1988; Lastovicka and Gardner, 1979);
- *hedonic involvement* - the level of arousal causing personal relevance (McQuarrie and Munson, 1986; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985); and
- *the subjective risk and probability of making a mispurchase* (Knox et al, 1994; Jain and Srinivasan, 1990; Peter and Olsen, 1987).
- *enduring involvement* - the interest and familiarity with a product class as a whole (Beharrell and Dennison, 1995; Jain and Srinivasan, 1990; Higie and Feick, 1988; Ratchford, 1987; Vaughn, 1986);
- *situational involvement* - the interest and commitment within a product class, e.g. loyalty to the brand choice (Beharrell and Denison, 1995; Mittal, 1989);

Key articles in the involvement literature were examined to establish an initial database of the potential dimensions of involvement. The organisation of the database into definitional approaches, followed by an *analysis and evaluation of* content, context, degree of overlap, and validity or worth of involvement definitions, provided the initial conceptualisation of the involvement construct (McKennell, 1974). The number of dimensions identified in the involvement construct has varied substantially, as have the components themselves (see Table 6.1). To date, no study could be found that has collated key research to discover common or accepted dimensions of the involvement construct. To rectify this, the components have been tabulated under main headings as a basis for summarising and evaluating the content of involvement (Table 6.1). Entry is organised chronologically.

Table 6.1 shows that recent research (i.e. after 1985) identifies a greater number of involvement components. Hendrick (1991) notes that historical context should be considered as an aspect of the total research reality. This could be an important point given the recent availability and ease of use of statistical measurement techniques and increased sophistication. The use of programs such as LISREL have been instrumental in uncovering a greater number of sub-constructs and in invalidating older models. The sixteen most recent articles show a total of 58 components of involvement, on aggregate, compared with thirteen authors carrying out research pre-1985 who distinguished only 28 components, on aggregate. As shown, the involvement components most often identified by authors are enduring, normative, situational, hedonic and risk with 72 per cent, 72 per cent, 52 per cent, 35 per cent and 24 per cent respectively of the authors citing them. As there are a multitude of definitions and summaries of involvement being used, clarification is needed to identify the key dimensions.

Replication of research is perceived as an important requisite for a scientific discipline (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1984; Amir and Sharon, 1991). The failure to obtain similar findings in a replication indicates the need for further work in the area. A successful replication, on the other hand, promotes confidence in the reliability of the results, and suggests the need to study whether the findings can be generalised to different populations, products, geographical areas and so on. Replications with extensions serve this function of assessing whether outcomes can be generalised beyond the original context. They help to determine the scope and limit of the findings. Thus, replications and extensions play a valuable role in ensuring the integrity of a discipline's empirical results. Despite this, replication is seldom carried out in marketing (Hubbard and Armstrong, 1994).

Replication research is particularly relevant for consumer involvement where there are a multiplicity of definitions and methodologies. Amir and Sharon (1991) note that clarification of variables, theories, and various kinds of universals, in addition to establishing reliability and validity, might be accomplished through replication. Due to the large number of involvement constructs, however, exact replication of a single involvement scale might be less appropriate than a replication exercise that makes use of a large number of differing involvement scales. By empirically testing the whole database of dimensions as outlined in Table 6.1, therefore, the structure of involvement can be refined.

Table 6.1 Dimensions of Involvement

Authors	Enduring Involvement	Normative Involvement (Sign)	Situational Involvement (Brand Pref.)	Brand Commitment	Hedonic Involvement	Risk Probability	Risk Importance	Utility	No. of Components Identified
Knox et al (1994)	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	8
Beharrell & Dennison (1995)	●		●	●		●	●		5
Jain & Srinivasan (1990)	●	●			●	●	●		5
de Chernatony & Knox (1989)	●	●	●		●				4
Mittal (1989)	●		●			●	●		4
Celsi & Olsen (1988)		●	●						2
Jenson, Carlson & Tripp (1988)	●	●	●						3
Higie & Feick (1988)	●	●			●				3
Ratchford (1987)	●								1
Vaughn (1986)	●								1
Bloch, Sherrell & Ridgeway (1986)	●		●						2
McQuarrie & Munson (1986)	●				●	●	●		4
Houston & Rothschild (1987)	●		●						2
Peter & Olsen (1987)	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	8
Laurent & Kapferer (1985)	●	●			●	●	●		5
Zaichkowsky (1985)		●							1
Antil (1984)		●	●						2
Greenwald & Leavitt (1984)	●	●							2
Rothschild (1984)	●	●	●		●				4
Bloch & Richins (1983)	●	●	●						3
Shimp & Sharma (1983)		●			●				2
Greenwald et al (1980)	●								1
Mitchell (1980)	●	●			●				3
Lastovicka & Gardner (1979)	●	●	●						3
Tyebjee (1978)		●	●						2
Robertson (1976)		●	●						2
Day (1974)	●	●							2
Engel & Light (1968)		●							1
Krugman (1966)		●							1
Total Components / Authors %	72%	72%	52%	10%	35%	24%	24%	7%	86

6.3 The Structure of Involvement

The structure stage of construct clarification calls for an empirical investigation of the content components of involvement. McKennell (1974) investigated 'structure' as a relationship between scaled components. The structure stage requires some instrument for measuring the different content components, typically these involve scaling techniques. Only then can one attempt to analyse the importance of particular components to corroborate dimensions of the involvement construct. The resultant measurement instrument can then be applied to European food shoppers (Chapter 7) to capture, validly and reliably, involvement levels. In order to identify the structure of involvement cross-nationally, therefore, and to develop an equivalent measurement tool across the selected EU countries, empirical research was implemented. Utilising scale development paradigms within the psychometric literature (Babin, 1994; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Churchill, 1979), a consumer involvement scale for food products was developed and validated across the EU. The scale items generated do not seem to be specific to food products, but have been developed and tested both qualitatively and quantitatively on food.

Summary of Research Design

Chapter 5 (page 136) details the research design implemented. A summary of the two-phase investigation, however, is provided below, to apply to the procedure of scale development and validation. Following the literature review (Chapter 4) and involvement construct identification as detailed above, ten involvement scales, developed by UK, US and French authors, with 105 items, were selected to capture the dimensions as outlined in the involvement database (Table 6.1). Scales utilised included those developed by Knox et al (1994); Jain and Srinivasan (1990); Mittal (1989); Higie and Feick (1988); Ratchford (1987); Vaughn (1986); McQuarrie and Munson (1986); Zaichkowsky (1985); Laurent and Kapferer (1985); Traylor and Joseph (1984) and Lastovicka and Gardner (1979).

These scales, together with statements created through a series of focus groups with students from five European countries, were combined into an initial 130-item pool measuring involvement (Broderick et al, 1995) (see Appendix 6.1). The initial item pool was screened and reduced by four expert judges (after Bearden et al, 1993). Items chosen were consistent with the theoretical domain of the construct, and thus exhibited content validity.

The initial scale that was empirically tested on a three-country pilot sample, consisted of 24 statements measured on a five-point Likert scale, with one indicating that the respondent strongly agrees with the statement and five indicating strong disagreement. Eight hundred and eighty-seven questionnaires across four categories of food products were administered to undergraduate business students in the UK, France and Germany. The administered scale was purified, as outlined in the European Scale Development section of Figure 6.1, resulting in a reliable measurement instrument. The final 12-item scale was then validated on a five-country sample. This involvement questionnaire was administered to a total sample size of 2,727, consisting of main food shoppers in the UK, France, Germany, Spain and Italy. Within each country, two cities were chosen to represent intra-nation differences, with approximately 300 questionnaires administered per city. The surveys were located inside selected mid-range international food retailers. Quotas of age and gender were constructed from national statistics.

In any cross-national study it is important to ensure equivalence so comparisons can be made. Indeed, the lack of equivalence has been a major stumbling block in the development of reliable and valid cross-cultural models. Psychometric equivalence of cross-cultural measurement scales has been discussed in Chapter 5. Functional equivalence, translation equivalence and sample equivalence have been established in the research design, and are detailed, therefore, in Chapter 5. Data collection equivalence is considered in greater detail in the current chapter. On implementation of the scale development and validation, conceptual equivalence (Berry, 1969) and metric equivalence (Buss and Royce, 1975) are established.

Scale Reduction and Model Identification

The purpose of any particular measurement instrument is to estimate the score that would be obtained if all of the possible items in the domain of a construct could be identified and utilised (Nunnally, 1967). If all the items in a measure are drawn from the domain of a single construct, responses to those items should be highly correlated. Low correlations indicate that some items are not drawn from the appropriate domain and are producing error and unreliability. These items should, therefore, be deleted. The 24-item involvement scale was administered to the three-country pilot study and then purified utilising item-to-total correlations, inter-item correlations and exploratory factor analysis. Item-to-total correlations of greater than or equal to .5 for an item were retained as were inter-item correlations equalling or greater than .3 (Bearden et al, 1993). Exploratory factor analysis was computed, utilising an orthogonal rotation (varimax). Items failing to exhibit simple structure were deleted (e.g. loadings less than .4 and/or split loadings) and factor analysis re-run on the data. Although both orthogonal and oblique rotations were initially implemented, the orthogonal solution was retained as the most appropriate and convenient (page 149). Table 6.2 details the factor correlation matrix of the oblique rotation. As is evident from the table, the factors have very little correlation with each other which is why the orthogonal and oblique solutions provide identical factor results, and, therefore, an orthogonal rotation has been retained.

Table 6.2 ***Oblique Factor Correlation Matrix***

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1	1.00000			
Factor 2	.13597	1.00000		
Factor 3	.22188	.09926	1.00000	
Factor 4	-.34313	- .17253	- .30302	1.00000

Exploratory factor analysis was also applied to summarise the interrelationships of variables as an aid to the conceptualisation of involvement, and to test for metric equivalence. Exploratory factor analysis identified a four factor solution as appropriate to the pilot data with Eigenvalues over one which are consistent with the scree plot image. Each factor, therefore, accounts for the variance of at least one scale item in order to be retained. The four factors account for 70 per cent of the variance in the total data. Interestingly, four factors were also extracted when exploratory factor analysis was run by country. The structure of the involvement scale exhibits four sub-constructs that are evident in all three countries:

- ***normative*** (the relevance of a product to an individual's values and emotions);
- ***enduring*** (an interest/familiarity with the product class as a whole);
- ***situational*** (an interest between brands/types of products); and
- ***risk*** (the importance/probability of making an incorrect product choice).

Table 6.3 presents a four-factor solution for each of the EU countries in the pilot study. The UK and French data produce identical factor structures. Although over 75 per cent of the variance in the German data is accounted for by the four-factor solution, the content of the factors are somewhat different. Germans perceive normative involvement identically to the British and French. Enduring and situational involvement, however, are perceived as one sub-construct, as opposed to two, and the risk factor is split into importance and probability of risk elements. Although there are differences, the factors combine or split into logical elements that are complementary to the overall four-factor solution. The differences, therefore, are deemed sufficiently insignificant to maintain that the research exhibits metric equivalence. Significantly, the four factors were consistent when scale data for each of the food products were analysed. The initial research, therefore, points to the finding that involvement is a universal construct exhibiting equivalent dimensions.

Table 6.3 Model Identification Factor Extractions By Country

Country	Variance Extracted	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
TOTAL DATA	70.1%	Normative involvement	Situational involvement	Enduring involvement	Risk involvement
UK	70.7%	Enduring involvement	Normative involvement	Situational involvement	Risk involvement
France	71.2%	Enduring involvement	Normative involvement	Situational involvement	Risk involvement
Germany	75.3%	Enduring & Situational involvement	Normative involvement	Probability of risk involvement	Importance of risk involvement

Key: Normative factor — Risk factor

Enduring factor — Situational factor

Discrepancies in common factor content

Nomological validity has been defined as the degree to which predictions from a formal theoretical network containing the concept under scrutiny are confirmed (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). Comparing the factor structure to previous studies, five key factors have been identified in the content analysis as broadly universal, four of these are evident in the current analysis. According to the literature review, enduring, normative, situational, hedonic and risk can be perceived as separate sub-constructs of involvement. The current research has grouped together hedonic and normative statements into a single factor. The factor encompasses how related the product is to the respondent's values, emotions and feelings of pleasure and thus can be thought of as a distinct sub-construct. Nomological validity of the four factor solution is also investigated through confirmatory factor analysis in subsequent sections of this chapter.

For a scale to be valid and possess practical utility, it must be reliable. Conceptually, reliability is defined as:

> "the degree to which measures are free from error and therefore yield consistent results" (Peter, 1979).

As such, the reliability of a scale places a limit on its construct validity. In order to measure the internal consistency of the multi-item scale, coefficient alpha was computed (Cronbach, 1951). Peterson (1994) provides a meta-analysis of magnitudes of coefficient alpha obtained in behavioural research. The meta-analysis exhibits the mean values of α obtained for different levels of research design characteristics, and can be used as a comparison tool for this analysis. The European involvement scale possessed an alpha of 0.85, proving a high level of internal consistency (Murphy and Davidshofer, 1988). The value exceeds the minimum α requisite of .7, for the research design used, as laid out by Peterson (1994). The scale, therefore, displays a cross-national reliable instrument (Table 6.4) (Appendix 6.2).

Table 6.4 Coefficient Alpha By Country

Total Data	England	France	Germany
α = .8476	α = .8412	α = .8621	α = .8425

Model Confirmation & Validation

The purified scale was subsequently administered to the five-country sample to validate the measurement scale and confirm the structure of involvement (Appendix 5.3). The coefficient alpha was calculated by country and by food product, and high levels of internal consistency were evident across all values. Table 6.5 indicates that the minimum reliability level of .7 was achieved for the involvement scale in each country and for each food product (Peterson, 1994).

Table 6.5 Coefficient Alpha Utilising the Five Country Survey by Country and Product

PRODUCT	UK	FRANCE	GERMANY	SPAIN	ITALY
TOTAL	.8556	.8412	.9329	.7972	.9632
Cheese	.8349	.8214	.9074	.8178	.9182
Frozen ready-made meals	.8606	.8762	.9269	.8217	.9771
Coffee	.8912	.8697	.9456	.8265	.9554
Yoghurt	.8775	.8539	.8855	.7567	.9643
Fresh red meat	.8158	.8169	.8982	.8516	.9389
Fresh poultry	.8555	.8255	.8993	.8275	.9568
Fresh vegetables	.8422	.7727	.8925	.7605	.8934
Fresh fruit	.8344	.8223	.8353	.7692	.9111

The factor analysis, detailed in the model identification stage, is an exploratory process which has explored multiple solutions for the most meaningful factor structure. Yet a hypothesis testing procedure is needed in order to specify competing factor-analytic models, and to compare and test the models according to their goodness of fit to the validation sample. Additionally, verification of conceptual equivalence across the total five-country data was needed. A confirmatory factor analysis was executed, utilising LISREL software on the SPSS statistical package (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1987), to confirm and validate the identified four-factor structure.

A confirmatory factor analysis of the four-factor solution was computed first on the total five-country data set to determine goodness of fit. Additionally, to determine whether a derived etic research approach has been achieved, and thus conceptual equivalence, confirmatory factor analysis tested the model in each separate country. The results are summarised in Table 6.6. As both the individual country results and the pooled data results are deemed satisfactory, the following section details only the pooled data results.

Table 6.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Pooled Data and By Country

Fit Statistic	Pooled Data	UK	France	Spain	Germany	Italy
GFI	.944	.897	.937	.935	.906	.920
RMSR	.056	.080	.064	.067	.058	.036
AGFI	.910	.832	.898	.894	.848	.880
RGFI	.945	.900	.941	.939	.891	.910

Overall Model Fit

The identified four factor solution was assessed for 'overall model fit' to determine the degree to which the specified indicators represent the hypothesised construct. The overall model fit to the validation sample can be assessed statistically by the chi-square test, and heuristically by a number of goodness-of-fit indices. The chi-square statistic is, however, sensitive to sample size (Sharma, 1996; Hair et al, 1993). For a large sample size, even small differences in the sample covariance matrix are statistically significant, although the differences may not be practically meaningful. The five-country sample of 2,727 respondents, is large enough to make the chi-square statistic significant even if extremely small relationships are present. It was deemed, therefore, to be an unacceptable test of model fit. Consequently, other methods are utilised for evaluating the fit of the model to the data (Bearden et al, 1982). The fit indices applied are mainly provided by LISREL (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1984), and are designed to provide a summary measure of the residual matrix; the difference between the sample and the estimated variance matrix. Fit indices utilised include: the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), the Relative Goodness of Fit Index (RGFI) and the Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR).

The GFI represents the amount of variances and covariances in the sample covariance matrix which are predicted by the model. The GFI for the four-factor developed model on the validation sample is given as .944. It has been shown, however, that GFI and consequently the AGFI (.910) are also affected by sample size and that the upper band for the GFI may not be one (Sharma, 1996). Rather than using GFI for large sample sizes, one should use a relative goodness-of-fit index (RGFI), which can be computed as:

$$RGFI \approx \frac{GFI}{EGFI}$$

Where the EGFI is the approximate expected value for the GFI (Maiti and Mukherjee, 1990), and is given by:

$$EGFI \approx \frac{1}{1+\left(\frac{2df}{pn}\right)}$$

Where: p = number of indicators
df = degrees of freedom
n = sample size

Application to the four-factor solution provides an EGFI=.999, an GFI=.944, and therefore a RGFI=.945. The rule of thumb for good-fitting models is that the GFI should be greater than 0.90. The four-factor solution exceeds this specification and thus is a good fit to the data.

All of the fit indices presented above are summary measures of the RES matrix and provide an overall measure of model fit. The RES matrix, labelled the fitted residuals matrix, contains the variances and covariances that have not been accounted for by the model. The larger the residuals, the worse the model fit, and vice versa. Residuals in the RES matrix are scale dependent. To overcome this problem, the RES matrix is standardised by their respective asymptotic standard errors. The resulting standardised residual matrix is also reported by LISREL. Standardised residuals that are greater than 1.96 (the critical z value for $\propto$ = .05) are considered to be statistically significant, and, therefore, high. Ideally, no more than five per cent of standardised residuals should be greater than 1.96. For large samples, however, even small residuals will be statistically significant (Sharma, 1996). For this reason, one may use the RMSR as a summary measure of the RES matrix. The Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR) is the square root of the average of the square of the residuals. The larger the RMSR, the less is the fit between the model and the data and vice versa.

The produced RMSR is .056. Only 5 per cent of the variances and covariances are not accounted for by the model and thus is a good fit to the data. The four-factor solution, therefore, fulfils the minimum RMSR requirements.

Assessment of Model Parameters

The overall model fit is adequate. The estimated model parameters can now, therefore, be evaluated and interpreted. Using the maximum likelihood parameter estimates for the squared multiple correlations (SMCs), the extent to which the variables are good or reliable indicators of the construct they purport to measure are calculated. The SMCs provide the communality of the indicator as reported in exploratory factor analysis programs. The SMC, therefore, can be used to assess how good or reliable an indicator is for measuring the construct it purports to measure. The minimum requirement of at least 0.5 is based on the logic that an indicator should have at least 50 per cent of its variance in common with the construct. Ten of the twelve indicators meet this requirement and, therefore, may be perceived as reliable (Table 6.7).

The Total Coefficient of Determination (TCD) assesses the extent to which the indicators as a group measure the construct. A common cut-off value for TCD is 0.80, but figures as low as 0.50 have been used (Sharma, 1996). The four-factor solution (TCD=.999) greatly exceeds the minimum requirements and, therefore, the internal consistency of the group of indicators is high.

Table 6.7 Reliability of Involvement Model Parameters (Squared Multiple Correlations for Independent Variables)

Scale 1	Scale 2	Scale 3	Scale 4	Scale 5	Scale 6
.838	.875	.706	.296	.652	.731
Scale 7	**Scale 8**	**Scale 9**	**Scale 10**	**Scale 11**	**Scale 12**
.653	.584	.384	.700	.624	.825

The results from the confirmatory factor analysis show a four factor model that exhibits nomological validity, and which is applicable across five countries. This positive evidence of psychometric conceptual equivalence suggests that there is much commonality as measured by involvement in the five countries studied. It can be seen that this four-factor involvement model provides an appropriate perspective in which inter-cultural consumer markets can be assessed. Confirmatory factor analysis shows that although the four-factor solution may not be the optimum conceptual model for each separate country (refer to the modification indices in Appendix 6.3), it is a valid, reliable, and equivalent instrument across five European countries, and can, therefore, be administered with confidence. The scale development and validation process thus presents a rigorously tested structure of European involvement. A new working definition of involvement has, therefore, been developed from this structure:

> *Involvement can be defined as the extent to which an individual is characterised by an incremental cognitive process which connects the individual to a product. The individual may progress through a number of mental states: the assessment of importance / probability of product risk (risk involvement); the relevance of a product to the individual's wants, needs and emotions (normative involvement); a general interest within the product category (enduring involvement); and, a specific interest between products (situational involvement).*
> *It is hypothesised that these states are linked sequentially, in that risk and normative involvement are antecedents to enduring and situational involvement. Moreover, each state may influence a behavioural response in isolation.*

6.4 The Context of Involvement

The context stage of construct clarification denotes what Brinberg and McGrath (1985) termed relational level analysis,

> "the ways in which two or more concepts can be related to one another" (p.20).

At this level the logical, causal and/or chronological relations among the elements are focused upon. Näsi (1980) termed the analysis of the relationships - external analysis (which corresponds to 'context'). This analysis consists of the positioning of the concept under investigation in relation to its antecedents and consequences. The validated four-factor model has been investigated, utilising structural equation modelling, to determine the antecedents and consequences of involvement. Figures 5.7 and 5.8 in Chapter 5 detail the relationships investigated, and Chapters 7 and 8 reveal the connections discovered.

6.5 Summary and Conclusions

Although the concept of involvement has been declared an important component of cognitive consumer behaviour models, and widely reported on for the last thirty years, there has been a *remarkable lack of agreement on its definition and* measurement. Nor do most writers appear to have undertaken an organised approach to the clarification of 'involvement' as a construct. This chapter imposes a set of guidelines in clarifying the construct and, through both theoretical and empirical analyses, has identified a valid and reliable measurement of involvement.

The construct comprises of four dimensions, which have been validated across the EU, namely:

- risk involvement
- normative involvement
- enduring involvement
- situational involvement

Bearden et al (1993) detail the criteria for evaluating attitude measures which can be compared to the current research. Table 6.8 reveals that the developed and validated involvement measure rates as exemplary or extensive on the criteria proposed. In addition, the measurement scale exhibits cross-cultural equivalence, and thus is appropriate to apply to food shoppers in the UK, France, Germany, Spain and Italy. The results can, therefore, be compared cross-nationally. Hence, Chapters 7 and 8 determine the influence of culture on involvement and the relationships between the antecedents and consequences of the construct across the EU.

Table 6.8 General Rating Criteria for Evaluating Attitude Measures

	Criterion Involvement Scale Exhibits	**Criterion Rating of Robinson et al, 1991; Bearden et al, 1993**
Theoretical development /structure	Reflects several important works in the field plus extensive face validity checks	**Exemplary**
Pilot testing / item development	100-250 items in initial pool; more than two pilot studies	**Extensive**
Means for some available norms	Means and Sds for total and some groups; some item information (provided in Chapter 7)	**Extensive**
Samples of respondents	Cross-sectional sample of nation / community	**Extensive**
Inter-item correlations	Inter-item correlation average of .30 or better	**Exemplary**
Coefficient alpha	.80 or better	**Exemplary**
Known groups validity	Discriminates between known groups highly significant; groups also diverse (provided in Chapter 7)	**Exemplary**

Source: adapted from Robinson et al, 1991, pp.12-13

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CHAPTER 7

FOOD SHOPPING PATTERNS, LEVELS OF INVOLVEMENT AND CONSUMPTION ACROSS THE EU

7.0 Introduction

The instrument measuring consumer involvement with food, developed in Chapter 6, was administered across Europe in the form of a food shoppers survey. The survey was employed to determine whether the level of involvement with a specific product varies according to culture, and whether culture imposes different involvement levels on individuals. This chapter outlines the representativeness of the survey sample, and investigates patterns in food shopping to determine whether European food consumers are homogeneous or heterogeneous in their behaviour. In addition, Chapter 7 establishes whether there are significant differences in the levels of involvement with food across Europe. Subsequently, Chapter 8 explores in more detail the relationships between culture, involvement and its behavioural consequences.

Chapter 4 (page 103) identified the model of consumer behaviour to be investigated in the context of cross-national food purchase. In addition to the variables under investigation (cultural influences on consumer involvement), it has been found that both product features and situational determinants can directly influence purchasing behaviour (Cobb and Hoyer, 1986; Donovan and Rossiter, 1982; Iyer, 1989; Belk, 1978; Knox and de Chernatony, 1990). From a behavioural perspective, the two outside forces acting on the consumer are the product and the situation (the stimuli). The consumer reacts to the product and the situation, and decides on a product to be purchased (response). Equally, in a cognitive context, it is recognised that the interaction between the consumer, situation and product will result in a process of choice leading to behaviour (Assael, 1987). Although investigating situational determinants is beyond the scope of this study, an exploratory store observation study was carried out as a preliminary examination of point-of-sale influences.

Details of the observation study are provided in Appendix 7.1. Key findings of the study, however, in terms of their application to the consumer survey, are commented on in this chapter. Differences or similarities in cross-national consumer behaviour should be recognised by the food retailer to provide information for the optimisation of store operations, and for the development of internationalisation strategies. Preliminary findings from the store observation study provide a context in which to operationalise the results of the consumer survey.

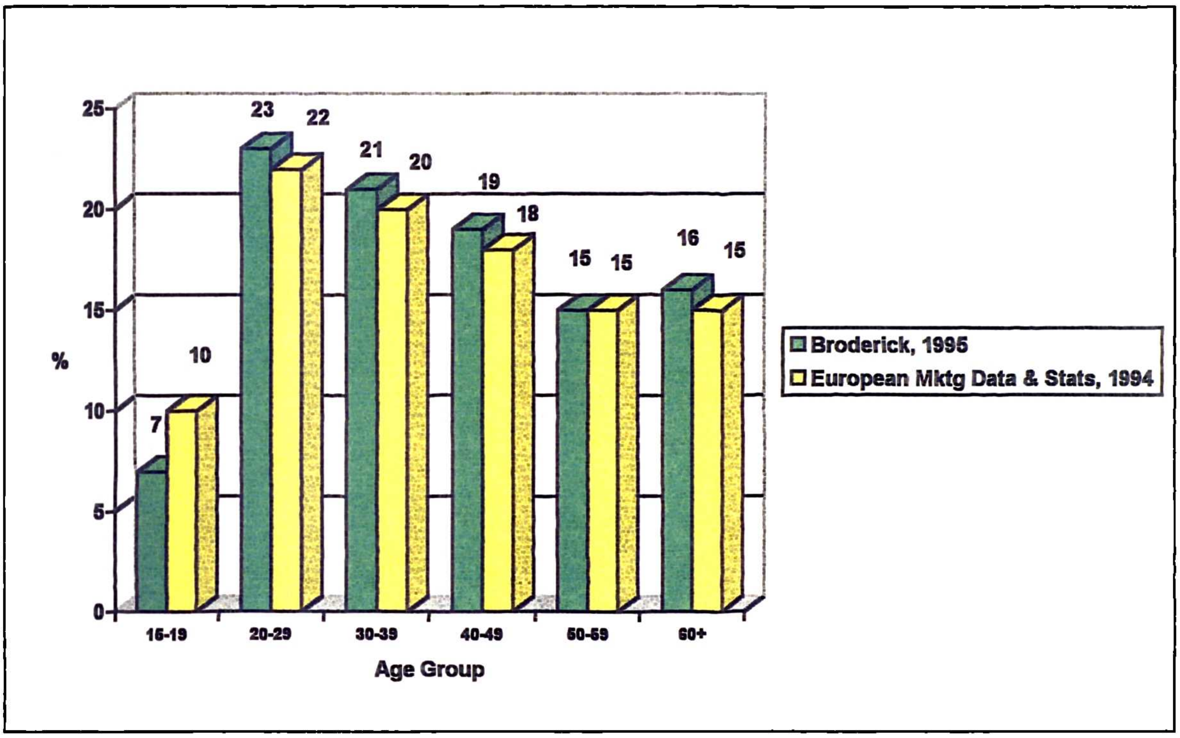
7.1 Sample Representativeness and Shoppers' Profiles

Prior to the analysis of results in a cross-national survey, sample representativeness should be demonstrated (Douglas and Craig, 1983). How representative the sample surveyed is to the population of food shoppers, in terms of consumer profiles, is determined, to establish whether the results from the sample can be generalised to the population. Chapter 5 detailed the extent and limitations of the sampling method utilised; the current chapter verifies the profile of the actual sample against the quotas set.

Age quotas were established from published statistics (European Marketing Data and Statistics, 1994) and respondent age groups were then compared to these quotas. Only slight deviations from the quotas are evident (Figure 7.1). The sample has a discrepancy between the quotas and the sampled profile of within one percent for all age groups accept the 15-19 group. This age group represents a smaller proportion of the European population, and is within three percent of published statistics. The sample, therefore, is representative of the age profile of the countries surveyed.

The gender predilection of main food shoppers is widely accepted in the retail industry. A greater percentage of women were interviewed because women across Europe tend to be the main food shoppers. Food shopping by men, however, significantly contribute to retail sales. Male shopping behaviour was, therefore, also considered. Store profiles identified a 70/30 female/male split in food shopping, and the sample reflected this breakdown.

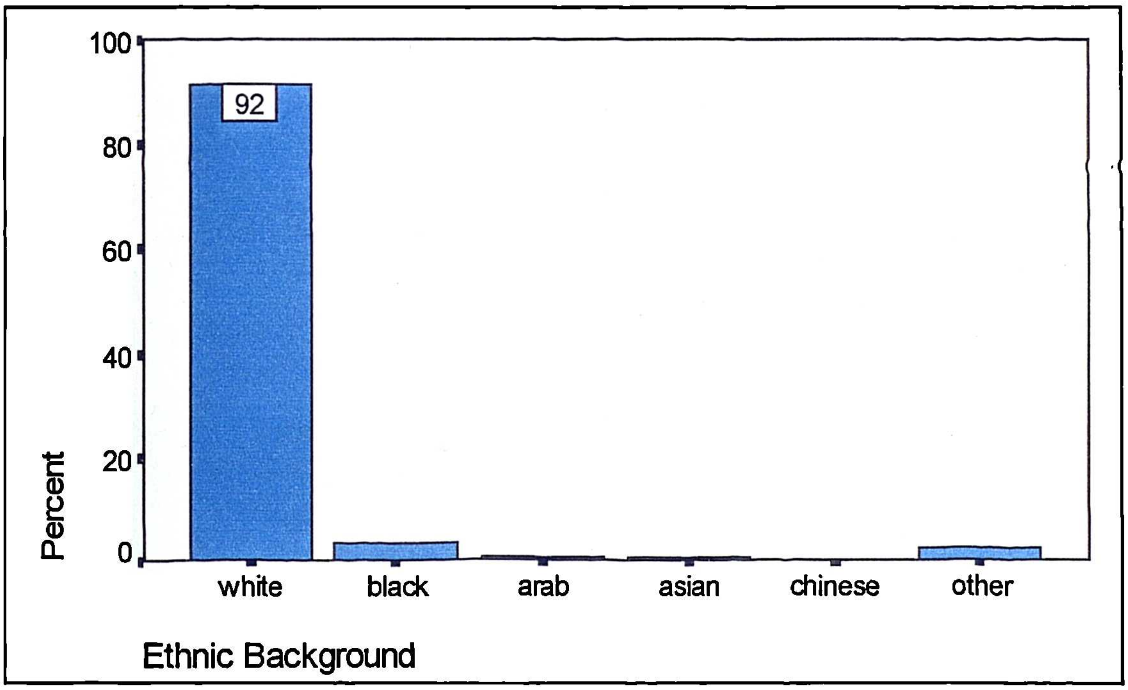
Figure 7.1 Respondent Profile: Age



In addition to age and gender, it is recognised that other demographic factors influence behaviour. The quotas were limited, however, because of time restraints. Additional demographic information was requested from the respondents, and the analysis of shoppers by occupation, education, income, ethnic background and stage in family life-cycle is shown in Appendix 7.2. The sample adequately reflects national profiles on the basis of these parameters.

Interviewers were required to approach every third person to establish an element of randomness and reduce interviewer bias. The stores outside of which the survey was carried out, however, tend to attract certain types of customer which subsequently biases the results. A significant limitation to sample representativeness is that the sample contains only a very small proportion of respondents from ethnic minorities (Figure 7.2). This proportion is insufficient to distinguish significantly between dependent variables. It is recognised that ethnic minorities have increased substantially throughout Europe in the last fifty years. These populations, however, still represent only a small proportion of the total European population. *For example, in 1994, ethnic minorities comprised only 4.8%* of the total UK population (Nielsen, 1996). The ethnic profile may represent the bias of the interviewers; not necessarily as a result of prejudice, but as a reflection of language and cultural barriers. Additionally, ethnic minorities are very localised, particularly in France and Germany, and store catchment areas may not reflect this.

Figure 7.2 Respondents' Profile: Ethnic Background



7.2 Shopping Patterns Across the EU

To place consumer involvement with food in context, shopping patterns are considered. Specifically, the type of retail outlet shoppers most often use, the frequency that the consumer carries out his or her main grocery shopping, travel time, and transport are all pertinent for comparison across the EU. These variables, measuring retail format penetration and location, set the scene in which purchase behaviour takes place.

As outlined in Chapter 5, supermarkets and hypermarkets are defined as equivalent retail formats across the EU (page 142). The majority of all food shoppers shop in supermarkets for branded products (i.e. coffee, yoghurt, frozen ready-made meals, and cheese). For both Italian and Spanish consumers, specialist shops are also significantly used (Figure 7.3, Appendix 7.3). For unbranded products, Italians, Germans, French, and Britons shop mainly in supermarkets. Spanish consumers are almost equally split on the type of retail outlet most often used to purchase unbranded products, with both supermarkets and specialist stores quoted for purchasing fruit, vegetables, red meat and poultry (Figure 7.4, Appendix 7.4). These results do not imply that consumers split their shopping list into branded and unbranded purchase, but that the purchase of unbranded products (i.e. fresh produce), is often a more considered decision, requiring the information and service that a specialist shop provides, and reflecting the traditional shopping values of the consumer. Despite the varying levels of retail development across the EU, as identified in Chapter 2, consumers overwhelmingly utilise supermarkets to carry out their main food shopping. Specialist shops are frequented mostly in the less developed countries, in terms of the less sophisticated retail penetration and the more slowly converging lifestyles, of Italy and Spain. Specialist shops are more often used to purchase unbranded fresh produce, e.g. fruit and vegetables, than for branded produce, e.g. coffee.

There may be a bias in these results as respondents were interviewed outside of supermarkets, and, therefore, the results may be skewed towards supermarket usage. It is the shopping patterns of supermarket customers, however, that are of particular relevance to the research problem. Supermarkets are the most commonly used retail format to be developed across frontiers. It is pertinent, therefore, to consider behaviour in this context. In addition, alternative outlets are quoted by respondents, and although results may well be skewed towards supermarkets, it is interesting to note the multiplicity of consumer shopping patterns. These results may be viewed in relation to frequency of shopping (Figure 7.5).

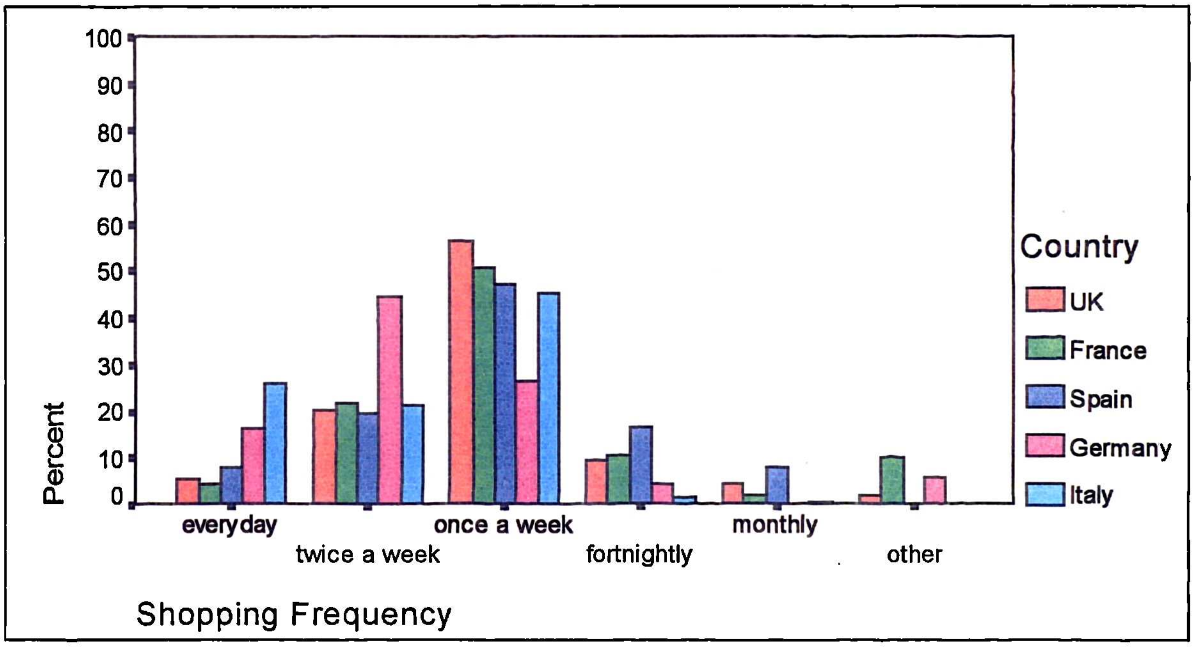
The majority of all consumers from the countries surveyed conduct their main food shopping once a week. German consumers are the exception to this trend, with the majority shopping twice a week. Although there is a significant number of Italians that shop every day, the majority of consumers follow the general EU trend of once a week shopping. This is somewhat surprising as Spain and particularly Italy are less developed in their food retail structure than Northern Europe, and, therefore, everyday shopping in general food stores would be the expected pattern. These results, however, may reflect the rapid changes in retail development and consumer lifestyles occurring in these countries. Additionally, in Germany the twice a week shopping by foot (Figure 7.6) is surprising in that most German supermarkets are built out of town. It does reflect, however, the longer travel time than the rest of the EU countries surveyed (Figure 7.7). The German results reflect that although main food shopping is carried out primarily in a supermarket, which may or may not be situated near a residential area, German consumers also regularly shop at convenience and specialist stores. Utilising these retail outlets enables shopping immediately after work, and circumvents the strict retailing laws which govern shopping hours (IGD, 1992). In addition, the 'hausfrau' is still a dominate feature of German society, and despite the sophistication of the German retail structure, traditional shopping habits are still evident.

Equal numbers of Italian respondents shop by foot and by car, reflecting the split in the type of retail outlet consumers use for their main food shop. Despite the division in retail formats visited, the majority of Italian consumers take less than 10 minutes to travel to the shop. This is a reflection of the difference in the retail structure in Italy. Whether the store is a specialist shop or a supermarket, stores are less likely to be out-of-town formats, but are often situated within a neighbourhood or community.

Figure 7.3 Type of retail outlet most often used to purchase cheese

Figure 7.4 Type of retail outlet most often used to purchase fresh fruit

Figure 7.5 Frequency of main food shopping across the EU



Figur 7.6 Type of transport used

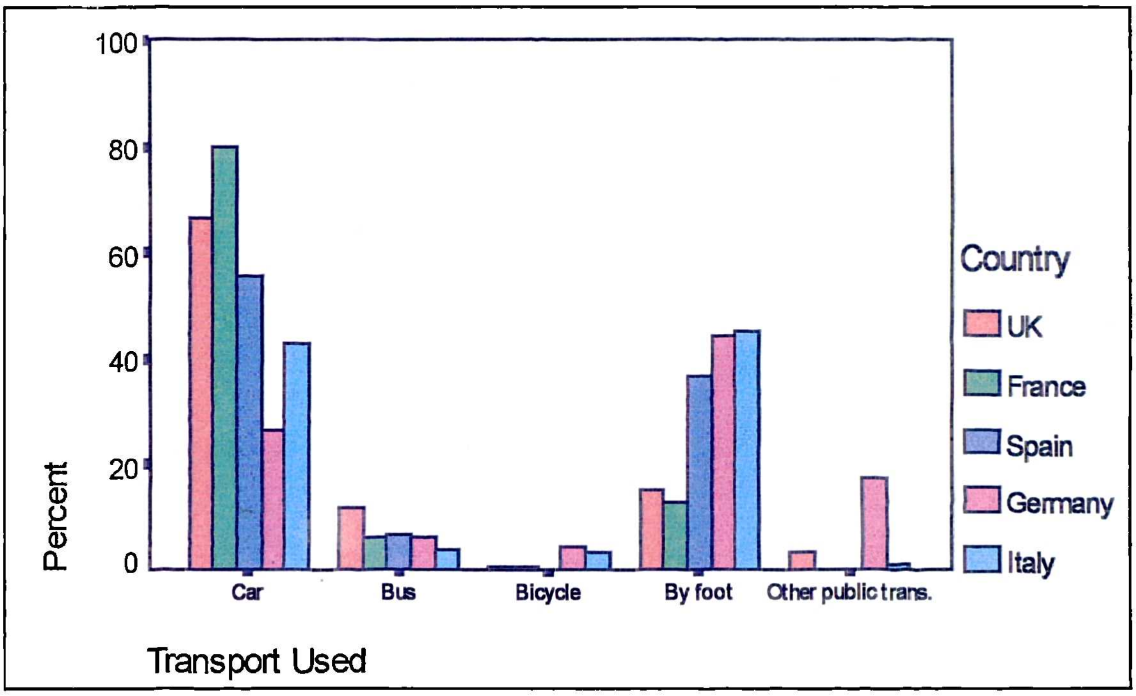
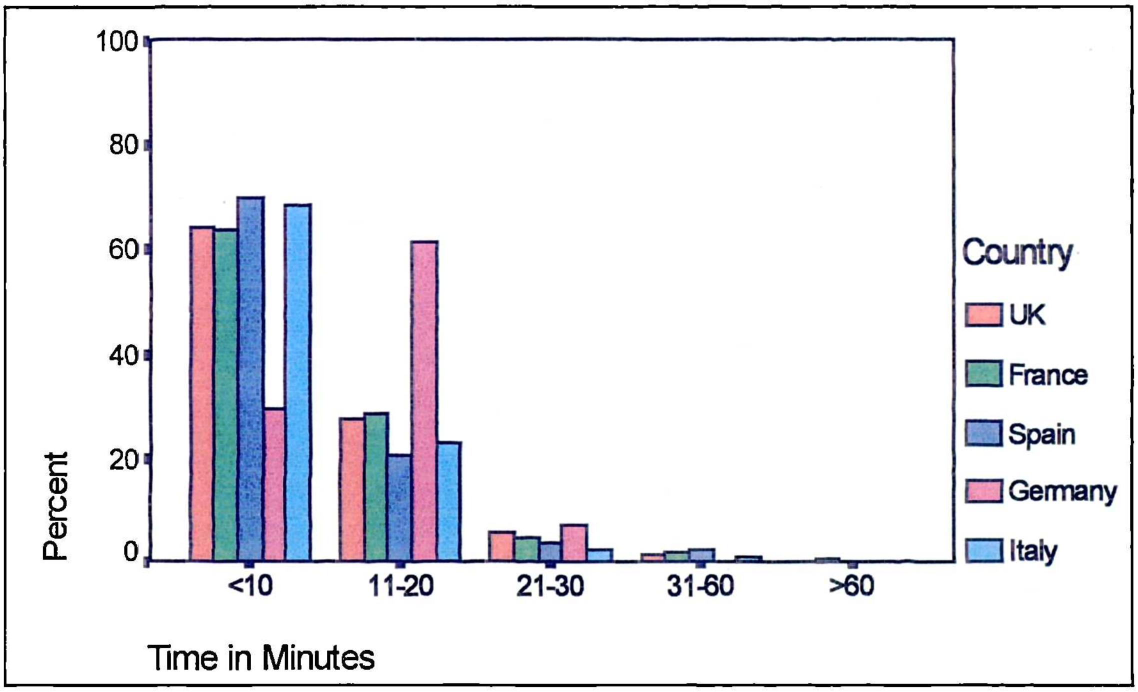


Figure 7.7 Travel time



7.3 Cultural Distinctions in Involvement

To test the primary hypothesis developed in Chapter 5 (page 116), analyses of variance (ANOVA) were carried out on the five-country data. Levels of involvement were calculated and contrasted for each product, in each country, using the four factors of involvement identified in Chapter 6 (page 187). In addition, the ancillary cultural variables discussed in Chapter 3 (page 74) were analysed by each involvement factor. All cultural variables were found to differentiate significantly between levels of involvement. The differences among the sample means are too large to attribute to sampling error, and, therefore, one can infer that the level of involvement with food does vary according to culture.

A Comparison of Involvement with Food Across the EU

Table 7.1 presents the finding that levels of consumer involvement with food differ significantly across the EU countries surveyed. Exploratory factor analysis was applied to the 12-item five-point Likert scale measuring involvement with food, and a four-factor solution determined (as developed in Chapter 6). The resulting output produced standardised factor scores which were averaged to provide mean responses of involvement with food across eight products in each of the five EU countries. To standardise the scale, the mean is subtracted and divided by the standard deviation to approximate a standard normal distribution (where, $\mu = 0, \sigma = 1$). The standardisation process assumes that the scale is normally distributed. Although the sample is not truly random with known population parameters, the Central Limit Theorem states that the mean of any distribution will tend towards the normal distribution as sample size increases. The sample size is almost 3,000 and, one can imply from this that the distribution is approximately normal. 68.26 per cent of the data, therefore, lies within -1 and +1 standard deviations from the mean.

Hence, the majority of consumer factor responses range from -1 and +1. Respondents with a negative score represent the most involved with food products, and a positive score represents the least involved. A score of zero depicts average involvement (Appendix 7.5). Although purists would argue that the Likert scale is ordinal data and, therefore, parametric statistical tests are inappropriate, many authors have argued that these scales can be treated as interval data because there is little error in doing so, and because of the robustness of the statistical tests utilised (e.g. Labovitz, 1967; 1970).

Italian respondents are the most involved with food (Figure 7.8). Comparing Italian involvement levels with average weekly purchase (Table 7.2), it is evident that consumption is also greatest in Italy. This would suggest on a preliminary basis that involvement and purchase are related positively. It is hypothesised that involvement influences purchase (Chapter 5, page 155); the line of causation, however, may be reversed. Past purchase may increase involvement with a purchase. Chapter 8 considers this circular debate in more detail. After the Italians, the next most involved food shoppers are the British and the French, followed by Spanish and German consumers displaying the least involvement.

The probability of at least one of the means of involvement differing by country, as identified in ANOVA, would result in a possible Type I error (Table 7.3). Type I error increases when making multiple tests of difference between individual means. That is, the null hypothesis that involvement does not differ by country may be rejected on the basis of only one significantly different mean out of the five country means. The hypothesis, therefore, may be rejected when it is actually true. To make multiple comparisons of ANOVA to reduce Type I error, a number of specialised tests have been developed; for example, the Duncan Test, the Tukey-HSD test, and the Bonferroni test. SPSS Version 6.0 provides all three of these multiple comparison procedures in its statistical array.

The three procedures were, therefore, used to determine which country means are significantly different from each other. All pairs of means are significantly different from each other except for Germany and Spain. Table 7.4 details the Bonferroni test utilised, and Appendix 7.6 contains the alternative procedures. Germany and Spain have similar involvement means and, therefore, experience similar levels of motivation, as is evident from Figure 7.8. Consequently, out of the nine possible pairs of country means, eight differ significantly. This provides sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that involvement with food does differ by country.

Figure 7.8 depicts a box plot identifying the spread of involvement scores by country. The central box contains the middle 50 per cent of the data, and the median line divides the data into two equal parts. As illustrated in the box plot, Germany and Spain have nearly identical median lines. The whiskers are drawn from the ends of the box to the smallest and largest data values inside the inner fences. Using the interquartile range (IQR = Q_3 - Q_1), fences are located. Inner fences are located at 1.5 (IQR) below Q_1, and 1.5 (IQR) above Q_3. The outer fences are located at 3 (IQR) below Q_1 and 3 (IQR) above Q_3. The fences are important aids in identifying outliers. Data falling between the inner and outer fences are considered mild outliers. Data falling outside the outer fences are considered extreme outliers. Although outliers are of interest, at this stage of the data analysis the main body of consumer responses are considered to be of the most importance to show the spread of involvement levels across the selected countries. Outliers have not, therefore, been detailed in Figure 7.8.

Table 7.1 The Impact of Culture on Involvement with Food: An ANOVA

Country	Mean	Standard Deviation
UK	-.0365	.4326
France	-.1610	.4353
Spain	.1767	.3408
Germany	.1744	.4382
Italy	-.2915	.7244
	F-test 334.0070	Degrees of freedom 4
	Significance .0000	

Figure 7.8 Mean Involvement with Food Across the EU

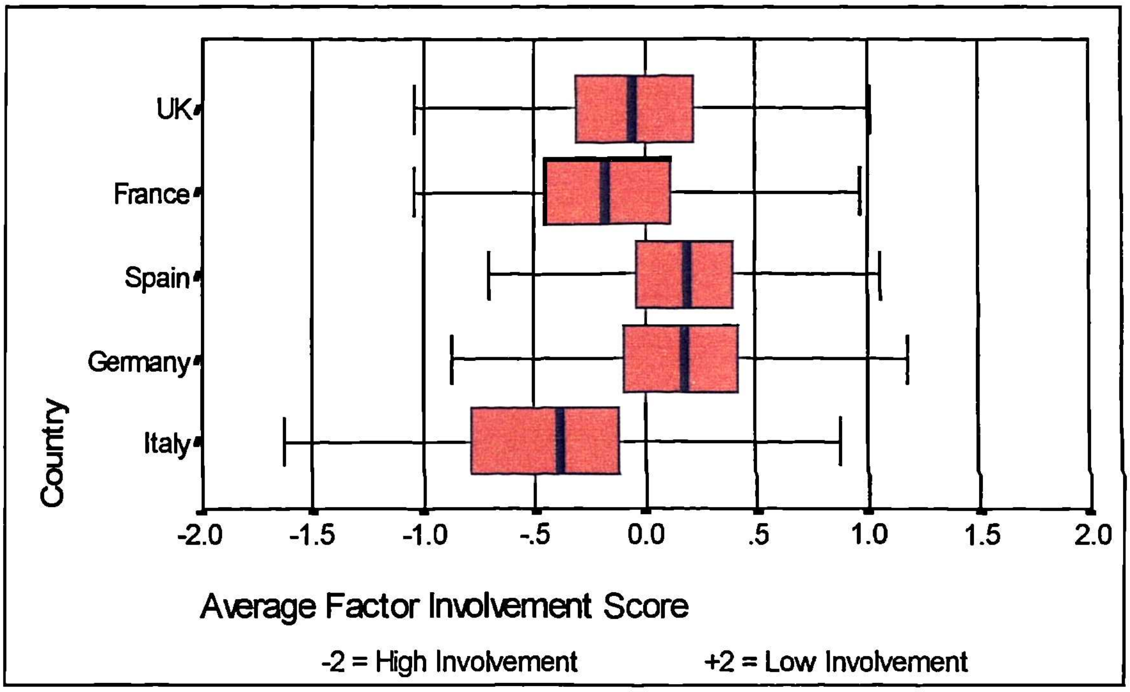


Table 7.2 Comparative Weekly Food Purchase, 1995

	Red Meat	Poultry	Fruit	Vegetables
Highest Weekly Purchase	Italy	Italy	Italy	Italy
	Germany	Germany	Spain	Spain
	France	France	France	Germany
	Spain	Spain	Germany	France
Lowest Weekly Purchase	UK	UK	UK	UK

Key: = UK = Spain = Italy = France = Germany

Table 7.3 Errors and Correct Decisions in Hypothesis Testing

State of Nature / Decision	H_0 True	H_1 True
Accept H_0	Correct Decision	Type II Error
Reject H_0	**Type I Error**	Correct Decision

Table 7.4 Mean Involvement Factor Score by Levels of Country: Bonferroni Test with Significance level .05

The difference between two means is significant if MEAN (J) - MEAN (I) >= .3304 * RANGE *SQRT (1/N(I) + 1/N(J)), with the following value(s) for RANGE: 3.97

Mean	Country	Italy	France	UK	Spain	Germany
-.2915	Italy					
-.1610	France	✓				
-.0365	UK	✓	✓			
.1744	Spain	✓	✓	✓		
.1767	Germany	✓	✓	✓		

✓ indicates significant differences which are shown in the lower triangle.

A Comparison of the Sub-Dimensions of Involvement Across the EU

To determine whether each of the four dimensions of involvement in food vary by culture, analyses of variance were computed on each separate factor score (Appendix 7.7). Levels of the following involvement dimensions were contrasted across the selected countries:

- enduring
- situational
- normative, and
- risk.

Each of the four dimensions of involvement differ significantly by culture. In addition, when the multiple comparison procedures previously mentioned are applied, the majority of the pairs of country means do differ significantly (Appendix 7.8). Specifically, all pairs of country means differ significantly by situational involvement. Situational involvement is, therefore, perceived differently in each of the five EU countries. In contrast, however, British and French consumers exhibit similar levels of enduring involvement. Both nationalities are highly involved with the product category of food as a whole. British and Italian consumers are normatively involved to a similar extent. Additionally, French and Italian consumers do not differ significantly in their risk involvement. Despite these commonalities, all of the other pairs of country means differ significantly to the 95 per cent confidence limit. It is reasonable, therefore, to conclude that each dimension of involvement does differ by country.

Cross-national comparisons of the levels of enduring and situational involvement present almost identical patterns across the EU countries investigated (Table 7.5). As is also evident in the average factor food involvement score detailed above, Italian consumers demonstrate the most enduring and situational involvement, and Spanish and German *consumers exhibit the least. Germany is more involved with* food, situationally, than Spain, the converse is evident, however, for enduring involvement. Although Spain exhibits a greater continuing interest with food than Germany, Germany attaches more importance to the choice between food products. Despite similar cross-national comparisons of enduring and situational involvement, countries differ substantially in their relative levels of normative and risk involvement. For example, France is the most normatively involved in food, compared to other EU countries. France, therefore, relates food the most to hedonic and psycho-social values. Spain exhibits the most risk involvement, Spanish food shoppers perceive the probability and importance of risk in purchasing food the highest.

Normative and risk involvement are most likely the types of involvement that marketers can influence the most in terms of communications. High involvement products can be marketed more effectively using rational appeals, while low involvement products seem to require emotional appeals (Crocker et al, 1983; Holmes and Crocker, 1987). In addition to this general application, research has shown that involvement is activated when intrinsic personal characteristics (such as needs, values and self-concept, i.e. the normative dimension of involvement) are further stimulated by appropriate marketing stimuli. Furthermore, communications can reduce feelings of risk and increase total involvement. It is relevant, therefore, to identify cultural groups that experience these dimensions differently. It is only with situational involvement, however, where all pairs of country means differ significantly, that this targeting variable can be used with confidence in all of the five selected countries.

Previous research has examined consumer choice criteria across the EU. It is interesting to compare these criteria against the findings in the present study. It can be argued that consumers choose products primarily based on price and quality (e.g. Mueller and Broderick, 1995; Europanel Database, 1992). Variations in choice criteria do, however, occur. The Spanish and Germans have been found to be more attached to quality than other Europeans (72 per cent choose on the basis of this criterion compared to 61 per cent on average). Price criterion overall scores between 40 and 47 per cent, but Italy puts a low premium on this determinant (27 per cent) (Europanel Database, 1992). These findings reflect, to a certain extent, the disparities in the involvement data. Germany and Spain exhibit similarly low levels of involvement, and choose similarly on the basis of quality. Italy has the highest level of involvement and values price as less important than other choice criteria. Whilst an investigation of the relationship between choice criteria and involvement is beyond the scope of this study, it is interesting to note the homogeneous patterns.

Table 7.5 ***Comparative Consumer Experience of Dimensions of Involvement Across Europe***

	Enduring	Situational	Normative	Risk
Highly Involved	Italy	Italy	France	Spain
	France	France	Italy	France
	UK	UK	UK	Italy
	Spain	Germany	Spain	UK
Low Involvement	Germany	Spain	Germany	Germany

Key: = France = Italy = Spain = Germany = UK

A Comparison of Involvement by Intra-National Variables

Involvement with food was also compared across other cultural variables, specifically: education, age, ethnic background, stage in family life-cycle, income and occupation. Utilising ANOVA, involvement means differed significantly across all of the cultural variables except income (Appendix 7.9). Table 7.6 summarises the cultural breakdowns of consumers by high and low involvement. For example, older respondents are more involved with food, specifically, level of involvement increases from age 40. In contrast, although the 15 to 19 year olds are the least involved in food as a whole, they exhibit the greatest situational involvement (Appendix 7.10). This finding reflects the importance of 'fashionable' food brands to the age group. Identifying involvement levels by intra-national variables can refine marketing development strategies. Consequently, intra-national variables are applied for target marketing purposes in Chapter 9.

Table 7.6 Differences in Cultural Profiles of Involvement with Food

Cultural Variable	High Involvement	Low Involvement
Gender	Female	Male
Stage in Family Lifecycle	All stages with children	All stages without children
Education	Less educated & postgraduate	More educated (below postgraduate)
Age	Older consumers	Younger consumers
Ethnic Background	Ethnic minority	Ethnic majority

7.4 *Food Product Involvement and Purchase Across Europe*

Subsequent to the investigation of consumer involvement levels with food as a whole, involvement with each of the eight products studied were considered. Involvement with each of the food products differs significantly by country (Appendix 7.11). Figure 7.9 depicts the perceptions of consumers by product. Although Italy exhibits the greatest involvement overall with food, Italian consumers exhibit low involvement with frozen ready-made meals. This finding can be rationalised through a consideration of the Italian lifestyle and the resulting penetration of this product. Traditional buying habits and food preparation are still much in evidence in Italy, particularly in the south where pre-prepared food products are relatively un-developed. In comparison, British consumers exhibit 'average' levels of involvement for most food products. Frozen foods, however, are perceived as highly involving. The increasing number of working women, the trend towards a fast-paced lifestyle, and the erosion of traditional family roles and household structures have resulted in the decline of the British meal-time. It has been replaced, to a large extent, by convenience cooking, snacking and 'TV dinners', all of which benefit the sales of frozen ready-made meals.

Consumers across the EU countries studied exhibit differing levels of each of the dimensions of involvement for each food product surveyed. For example, Italians and the French are the most involved in cheese. These consumers, however, feel different types of involvement (Figure 7.10). Italians exhibit greater situational and risk involvement. Product difference (whether real or imagined) is more important to Italian consumers. In addition, the higher level of perceived risk infers that brand commitment is most evident in Italians as a means of reducing risk (Knox and Walker, 1995; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985). The Italians are not normatively involved, however, in that pleasure and psycho-social risk is not associated with the purchase of cheese. In contrast, French consumers exhibit the greatest *normative* involvement, as is evident across all food categories surveyed (Appendix 7.11). The French may, therefore, be thought of as 'living to eat' rather than 'eating to live'. It is the Germans, however, that purchase the greatest amount of cheese (Figure 7.11, Appendix 7.12). They exhibit, nevertheless, low involvement in each of the dimensions except enduring. The Germans, therefore, experience less interest in branded products, as they perceive low risk associated with the choice of a particular product. German respondents have, however, a continuing interest in food as a whole.

Figure 7.9 Mean Factor Involvement Score by Food Product

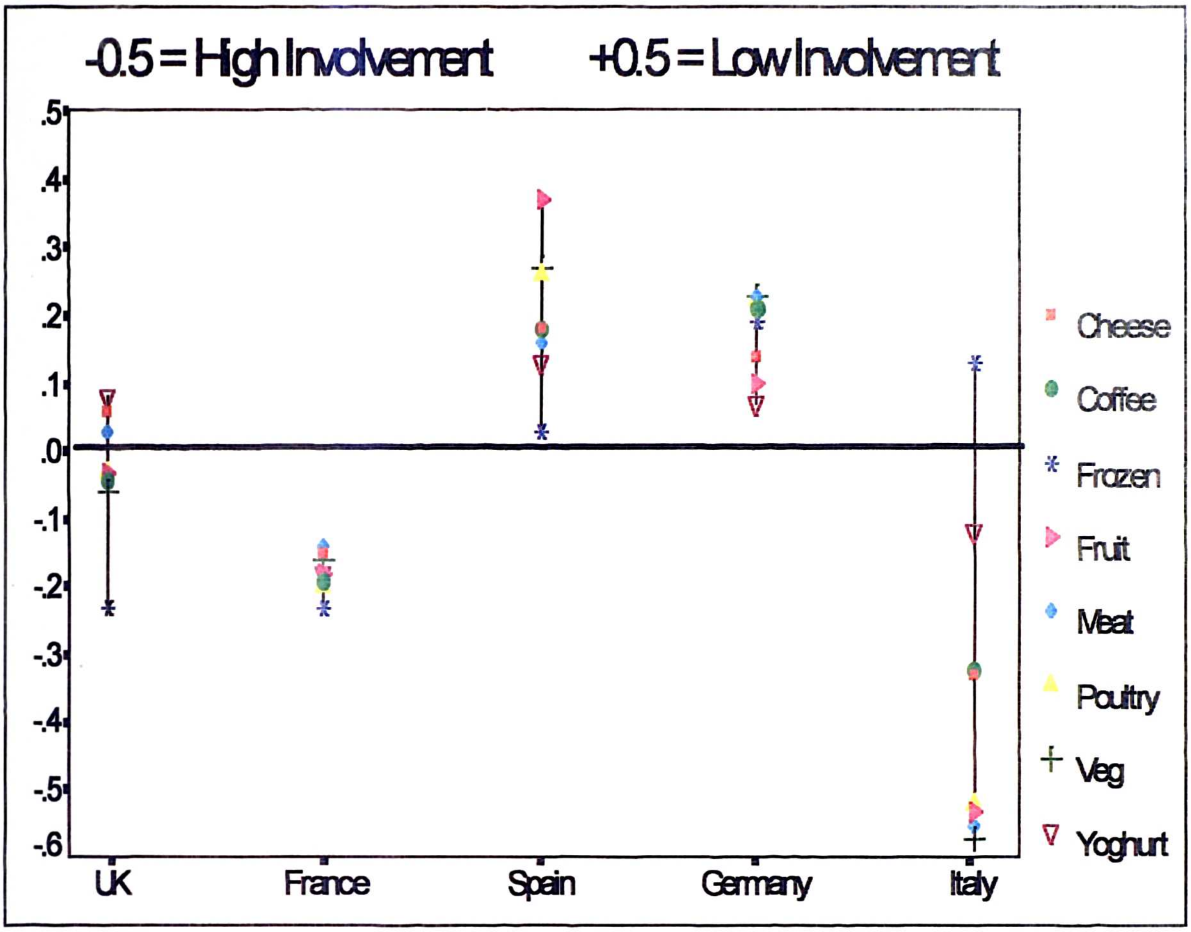


Figure 7.10 Involvement With Cheese Across the EU

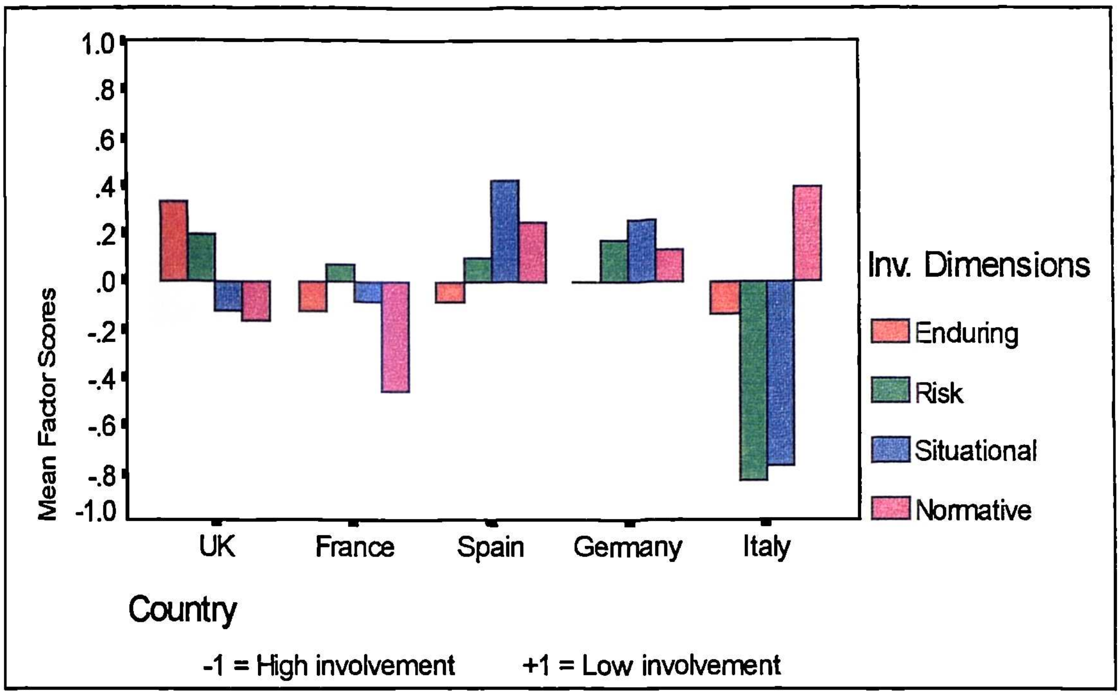
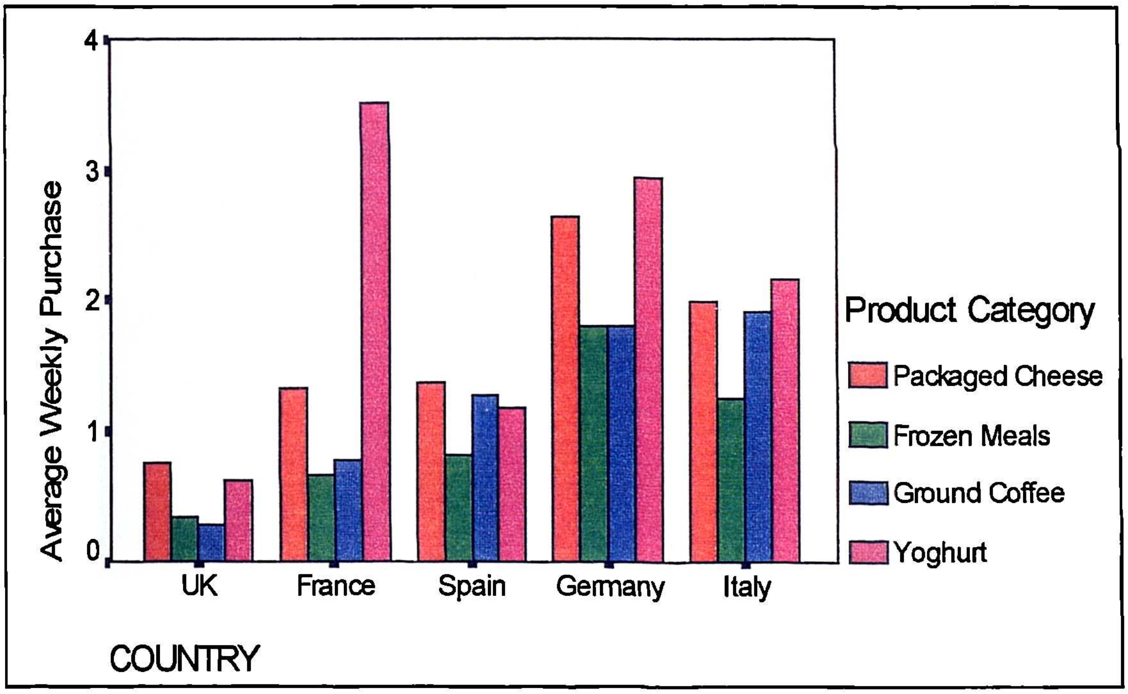


Figure 7.11 Branded Food Purchase Across the EU



It is interesting to compare involvement levels with purchase. Average purchase of each of the eight food products differs significantly by level of involvement (Appendix 7.13). Weekly purchase of each of the food products is significantly greater when the consumer exhibits high involvement (Table 7.7). This provides additional evidence that purchase and involvement are positively related. This relationship is investigated more rigourously through structural equation modelling in Chapter 8.

Table 7.7 ANOVA of Average Weekly Purchase of Yoghurt by Level of Involvement

Level of Involvement	Mean	Standard Deviation
High Involvement	2.5451	1.3018
Low Involvement	2.0089	1.3764
	F-Test 18.6007	**1 Degree of Freedom**
	Significance Level .0000	

Although involvement levels differ significantly by country and other cultural factors, the relative involvement by product conforms to a similar framework. A nation tends to be more or less involved in food as a whole. The disparity pattern in the major staple food categories varies cross-culturally, therefore, but follows a broadly universal ranking uni-culturally (see Figure 7.12). For example, fresh fruit is seen by all European consumers, except the Spanish, as more involving than fresh red meat. One possible explanation for this finding is that the UK, Germany, and possibly France and Italy import much of their fruit. Prices are higher, therefore, for imported food than for the home-grown produce evident in the fruit-growing country of Spain. As risk involvement is related to price and disposable income, the higher priced fruit in the rest of Europe potentially results in an increase in involvement.

A somewhat similar picture is created by involvement with branded products (Figure 7.13). Frozen ready-made meals, however, do not follow the pattern, perhaps because of the variation in penetration and relative sophistication of this food product across Europe, and also differences in levels of working women and, therefore, the need for convenience products. Evident in the common pattern is that involvement may be seen as indicating a universal European construct, in that relative product judgements are comparable.

Figure 7.12 Involvement with Unbranded Food Products

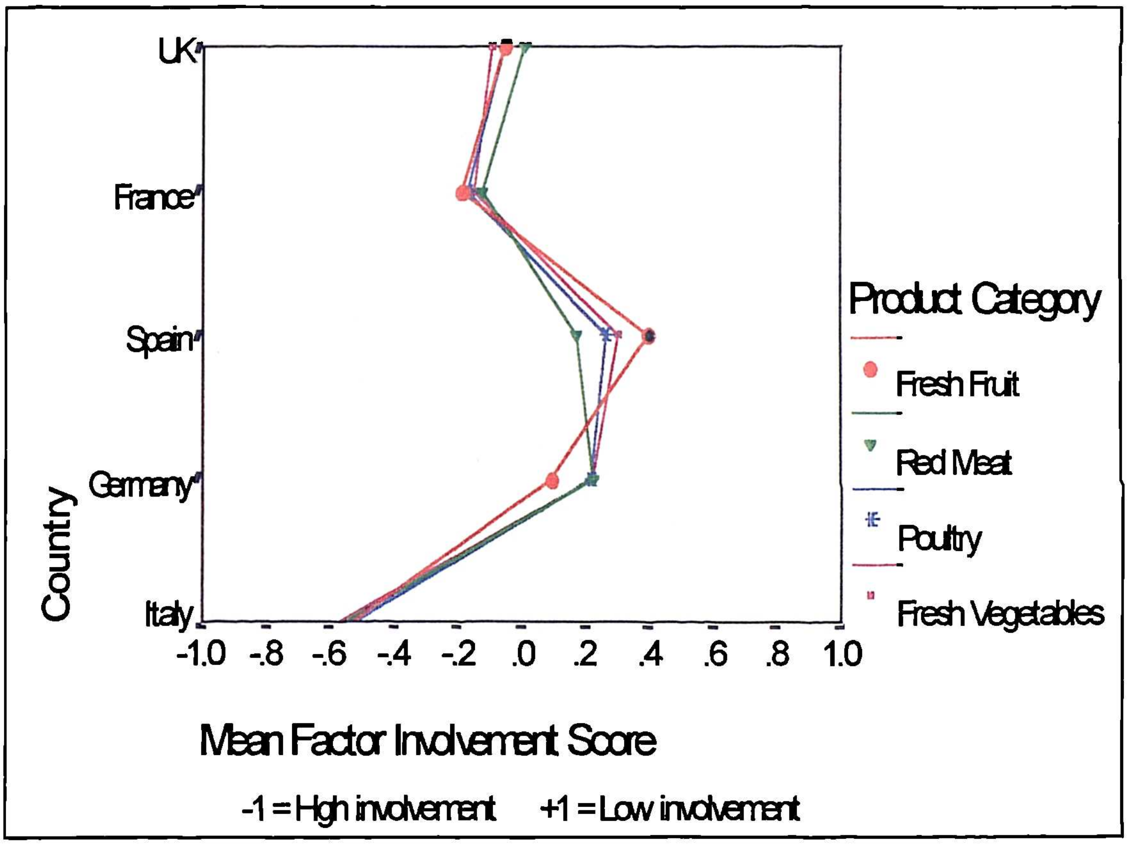
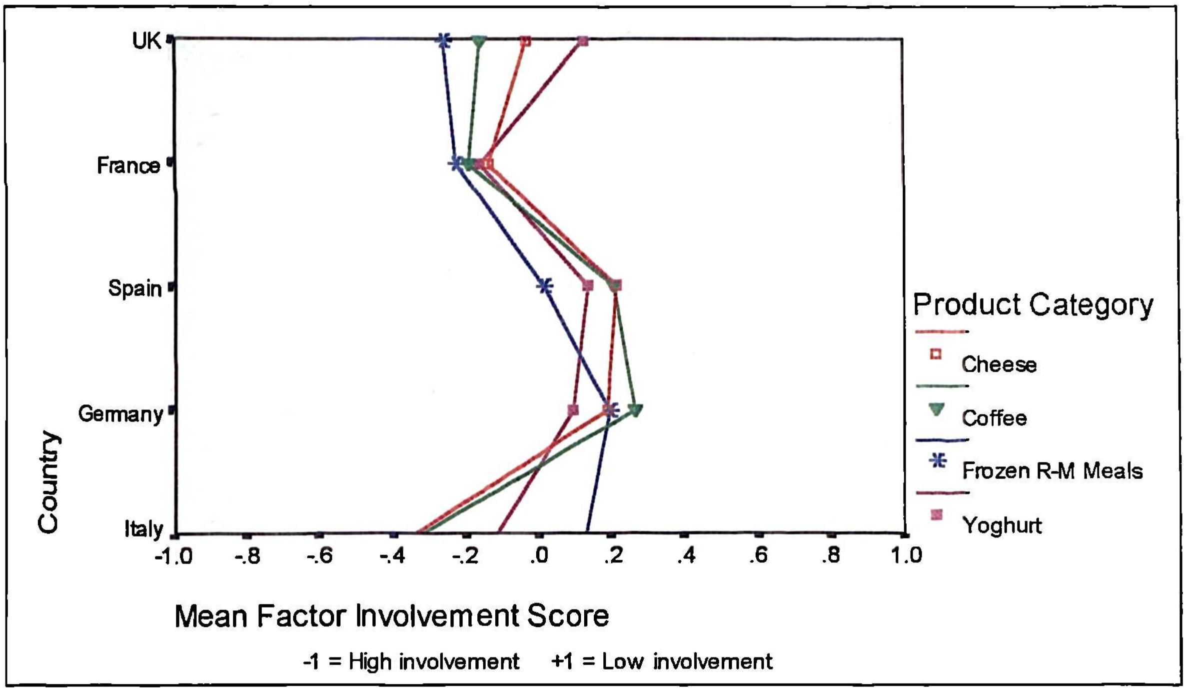


Figure 7.13 Involvement with Branded Food Products



7.5 Purchasing Behaviour and the Point-of-Sale

The EU food retail structure and the internationalisation trends of food retailers have been reviewed in Chapter 2. To place the consumer results of variations in involvement levels in a retail context, it is pertinent to examine the environment in which the consumer exhibits this cognitive process. Consumer involvement impacts on product usage, evaluation of products/brand, and brand loyalty (Mitchell, 1980; Beatty and Smith, 1987). Food retail stores across four EU countries have, therefore, been observed in terms of store layout, product shelf space and number of brands available. As the consumer/retailer interface is held to be of crucial importance to retail success, it is interesting to investigate the relationship between consumer behaviour (involvement and consumption) and the response of the retailer in terms of store operations. Specifically, whether or not retailers have responded to the previously identified variations in consumer behaviour by adapting their store operations.

Eight of the sixteen observed food categories were selected, which corresponded with the consumer involvement survey, and ranked in terms of their shelf space allocation (the largest allocation first). This ranking was then compared to ranked average involvement levels and consumption of these products by country. Tables 7.8 to 7.11 summarise the findings. Rankings are provided, rather than raw data, because precise store measurements are of a limited nature.

Involvement and weekly purchase rankings are extremely similar to each other in each country. The ranking of product space to consumer outcomes, however, are not exactly comparable. For example, packaged cheese has the greatest shelf space allocation in France, yet consumer involvement and weekly purchase of cheese in supermarkets is lower than yoghurt and fruit. Fruit, however, is ranked fourth in terms of space allocation (Table 7.8). Previous research suggests, and the present study supports this finding, that shelf-space in the UK allocated to cheese outweighs the space merited on the basis of sales (Leigl, 1989; Knox and de Chernatony, 1990). It is proposed that retailers should re-focus their merchandising strategy since the provision of increased shelf-space alone may lead to diminishing returns (Knox and de Chernatony, 1990). As research has found that situational determinants within a store can sometimes modify purchase behaviour (Knox and de Chernatony, 1990), the observation findings suggest to retailers that by adapting product space allocation to reflect consumer behaviour, sales may be maximised.

Potential situational influences on consumer behaviour suggest that the internationalising retailer needs to be aware of the differences in consumer behaviour cross-nationally, even in the supposedly homogeneous region of the European Union. In Spain, for example, consumers are most involved with yoghurt, cheese and ground coffee, which are also purchased most often. In comparison, in France, involvement and purchase is most pronounced with fresh fruit, fresh vegetables and yoghurt. Consequently, consumer differences and similarities are of particular importance for the retailer when developing store formats abroad.

These findings are naturally tentative, due to the limitations in the *observation study* methodology. They do, however, provide initial conceptualisations of the consumer/retailer interface, and provide suggestions from which to operationalise the consumer results.

Table 7.8 France: Comparison of Product Space Allocation, Mean Involvement Levels and Average Weekly Purchase

Ranking	Space Allocation (Largest space first)	Involvement Level (Greatest score first)	Weekly Purchase (Greatest no. first)
1	Packaged cheese	Fruit	Yoghurt
2	Yoghurt	Vegetables	Fruit
3	Vegetables	Poultry	Vegetables
4	Fruit	Yoghurt	Cheese
5	Frozen ready-made meals	Cheese	Red meat
6	Ground coffee	Red meat	Poultry
7	Poultry	Ground coffee	Ground coffee
8	Red meat	Frozen ready-made meals	Frozen ready-made meals

Key: = Cheese = Yoghurt = Fruit = Coffee

= Poultry = Vegetables = Meat =Frozen food

Table 7.9 ***Germany: Comparison of Product Space Allocation, Mean Involvement Levels and Average Weekly Purchase***

Ranking	Space Allocation (Largest space first)	Involvement Level (Greatest score first)	Weekly Purchase (Greatest no. first)
1	Vegetables	Fruit	Fruit
2	Fruit	Vegetables	Yoghurt
3	Frozen ready-made meals	Yoghurt	Cheese
4	Yoghurt	Cheese	Red meat
5	Poultry	Poultry	Vegetables
6	Red meat	Red meat	Frozen ready-made meals
7	Cheese	Coffee	Ground coffee
8	Ground coffee	Frozen ready-made meals	Poultry

Key: = Cheese = Yoghurt = Fruit = Coffee

= Poultry = Vegetables = Meat =Frozen food

Table 7.10 Spain: Comparison of Product Space Allocation, Mean Involvement Levels and Average Weekly Purchase

Ranking	Space Allocation (Largest space first)	Involvement Level (Greatest score first)	Weekly Purchase (Greatest no. first)
1	Vegetables	Ground coffee	Yoghurt
2	Fruit	Yoghurt	Cheese
3	Frozen ready-made meals	Cheese	Ground coffee
4	Cheese	Fruit	Fruit
5	Red Meat	Vegetables	Vegetables
6	Yoghurt	Red meat	Frozen ready-made meals
7	Ground coffee	Poultry	Red meat
8	Poultry	Frozen ready-made meals	Poultry

Key: = Cheese = Yoghurt = Fruit = Coffee

= Poultry = Vegetables = Meat =Frozen food

Table 7.11 UK: Comparison of Product Space Allocation, Mean Involvement Levels and Average Weekly Purchase

Ranking	Space Allocation (Largest space first)	Involvement Level (Greatest score first)	Weekly Purchase (Greatest no. first)
1	Cheese	Fruit	Vegetables
2	Vegetables	Vegetables	Fruit
3	Yoghurt	Poultry	Cheese
4	Poultry	Ground coffee	Poultry
5	Frozen ready-made meals	Cheese	Yoghurt
6	Fruit	Red meat	Red meat
7	Ground Coffee	Yoghurt	Frozen ready-made meals
8	Red meat	Frozen ready-made meals	Ground coffee

Key: = Cheese = Yoghurt = Fruit = Coffee

= Poultry = Vegetables = Meat =Frozen food

7.6 Summary and Conclusions

It has been argued that routine food shopping is un-involving (Chapter 4, page 88). The results presented in this chapter, however, indicate that this is not always the case across the EU countries investigated. 'Food involvement' levels differ significantly across Europe, yet in some countries food is perceived as highly involving. In general, Italians, French and Britons are judged to be 'involved' on all measures. German and Spanish respondents, who may be judged as 'not involved' on the overall score of food involvement, reveal considerable levels of involvement on certain dimensions (see Table 7.5, page 214).

Conclusions with respect to the hypotheses, developed in Chapter 5, are summarised in Table 7.12. One of the null hypotheses is confidently rejected (number 2). The remaining five null hypotheses have been partially rejected from the findings in this chapter; four of which will be tested further in Chapter 8. Consideration of hypothesis six is beyond the extent of this study. Further research of the issue, however, is considered in Chapter 10.

The differences in involvement, and the tentative relationship of involvement with purchase confirm the value of studying involvement for target marketing. Specifically, the findings will be used in Chapter 9 to aid decision-making when tackling the dilemma of globalisation versus customisation strategies for internationalising retailers. The creation of cross-national or intra-national consumer groups with differences / similarities in food involvement is particularly crucial to the operationalisation of being global and acting local. For this purpose, involvement may be seen as a pan-cultural segmentation variable to target market.

Table 7.12 Testing the Null Hypotheses - Part A

Null Hypothesis	Decision	State of Nature
1. One culture or sub-culture does not impose different involvement levels on individuals.	Inconclusive - tested further in Chapter 8.	Null hypothesis.
2. The level of involvement with a specific food product does not vary according to the culture or sub-culture.	Rejected.	Level of involvement differs significantly by all cultural variables except income.
3. Involvement levels do not influence food consumption.	Inconclusive - tested further in Chapter 8.	Null hypothesis.
4. Culture does not influence food consumption.	Inconclusive - tested further in Chapter 8.	Null hypothesis.
5. Culture does not influence food purchasing behaviour.	Inconclusive - tested further in Chapter 8.	Null hypothesis.
6. Cultural consumer differences are not reflected by European food retailers.	Inconclusive - further research required. See Chapter 10.	Null hypothesis.

To investigate further the linkages between the dimensions of involvement, purchase and culture, Chapter 8 models the structural relationships. Previous authors have found that involvement has a causal relationship with consumption, information processing time, brand loyalty, variety seeking, and responses to advertising. Chapter 8 will investigate, therefore, one consequence of involvement, purchase; and compare the levels and strength of relationships by country. This structural modelling determines whether one culture imposes different involvement levels on individuals, and whether this imposition on involvement levels influences food purchase.

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CHAPTER 8

MODELLING THE STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS OF INVOLVEMENT BY CULTURE

8.0 Introduction

Chapter 7 has established that there are significant differences in the levels of involvement with food across Europe. Both previous research and initial primary evidence suggest that involvement influences behaviour. In addition, it is hypothesised that culture imposes different involvement levels on individuals, not only in terms of the intensity of involvement exhibited, but also that the strength of the relationship between involvement and behaviour may differ by country. Chapter 8, therefore, explores further the relationships between culture, involvement, and its behavioural consequences. Two competing models of an antecedent and consequence of involvement are developed and tested across the five selected EU countries. The models are assessed for their pertinence to the data, and one selected for further analysis. Specifically, the structural relationships between economic status and involvement, and between involvement and purchase are investigated. Shopping frequency is considered as an additional variable of behaviour. Finally, these relationships are examined by culture.

8.1 Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling is a comprehensive statistical approach to test hypotheses about relationships among observed and latent variables. It is a technique combining elements of both multiple regression and factor analysis that enables the researcher not only to assess quite complex interrelated dependence relationships, but also to incorporate the effects of measurement error on the structural coefficients at the same time. It is a process where underlying latent variables, which may be response (endogenous) and explanatory (exogenous) variables, are linked by a series of linear relationships known as structural equations.

Although this process is often called causal modelling, which has implications for the models that in most applications cannot be justified, it is more appropriate to perceive the process as testing the 'influence' that one variable has on another (Everitt and Dunn, 1983). This influence is directional in the sense that x influences y, but not vice versa.

The general structural equation model comprises of two components: the measurement and the structural model. The measurement part of the model is similar to a factor model, where each factor represents a latent construct measured by its indicators. Latent variables are unobserved variables implied by the covariances among two or more indicators. Confirmatory factor analysis makes use of only the measurement model component of the general structural equation model (see Chapter 6). The structural model is that component of the general model that prescribes the relations between latent variables. The structural model, therefore, represents the relationships among the constructs, and the measurement model represents the relationships among the unobservable constructs and their indicators (Sharma, 1996).

When the measurement and structural components are combined, the result is a statistical model that can be used to evaluate relations among variables that are free from measurement error (Hoyle, 1995). Social science data frequently are measured with error; that is, measures are fallible. This error can produce bias in the estimates of beta (β) and can undermine significance tests. It thus becomes important to use statistical methods that can accommodate measurement error. Traditional regression does not do so. Structural equation modelling is, therefore, the most appropriate technique to analyse the relationships between the antecedents and consequences of involvement, and to compare these relationships across cultures.

To develop and analyse the structural pathways of involvement, the chapter is divided into four sections. First, competing models are developed from theory and the findings detailed in Chapter 7. Secondly, the models are explained and expressed in structural terms. Subsequently, analysis of the models take two forms. The measurement model is assessed, to determine how well the models fit the data; and the structural model is assessed to investigate the behavioural consequences of involvement, and the cultural influences on these consequences.

8.2 Modelling Involvement

Understanding the sources and consequences of involvement offers a dynamic picture of the consumer's subjective situation and provides clues as to what appeals should be used in communicating with customers. Chapters 4 and 6 have addressed potential antecedents and consequences of involvement. Specifically, pages 103 and 124 have detailed the context of involvement. Table 8.1 presents a summary of the key variables. One antecedent and two consequences of involvement have been selected for investigation, as an illustration of the context of involvement. Economic status, in terms of income and education, is known to influence behaviour, and is selected as the independent variable. The four dimensions of involvement, identified in Chapter 6 are perceived as mediating variables of the predictor. Finally, purchase and shopping frequency are selected as behavioural outcomes. The selected variables are applied into two competing models, which have been developed from the extant literature and are supported through initial findings in the data as reported in Chapter 7. Path diagrams of the two competing models are shown in Figures 8.1 and 8.2.

Table 8.1 A Summary of the Context of Involvement

Inputs into Involvement	Outputs of Involvement
Situational involvement results from risk perceptions (Clarke and Belk, 1979; Knox and Walker, 1995)	Enduring involvement increases level of ongoing search (Bloch, 1981)
Personality type is a determinant of enduring involvement (Amine, 1993)	Retail store browsing is positively related to product interest (Bloch and Richins, 1983)
Income affects sensitivity to price, which is an element of situational involvement (Zaichkowsky, 1986)	Level of involvement influences response to communication appeals (Crocker et al, 1983)
Culture may impose more or less involvement on individuals (Wills et al, 1991)	Purchase (Zaichkowsky and Sood, 1989)

Consideration of initial findings, specifically through exploratory factor analysis, has resulted in competing structural models to be tested. The choice of orthogonal versus oblique rotations for exploratory factor analysis was provided in Chapter 6 (page 178). A comparison of the rotations provide interesting suggestions of the relationships between the dimensions of involvement. Both orthogonal and oblique rotations provide identical factor and variance extracted results of the 12-item measurement scale of involvement with food. Examining the oblique factor correlation matrix, low correlations imply that the factors have little association, and are more like the assumption of an orthogonal rotation which presumes that factors are independent. This provides the first model of involvement to be tested (Figure 8.2). The path diagram detailed in Figure 8.2 outlines the structural relations between the four dimensions of involvement, which are independent of each other, and one antecedent (economic status) and one consequence (purchase frequency).

Alternatively, the factors can be split up into hypothetical involvement input (i.e. risk and normative assessment) and involvement output (i.e. enduring and situational interest). Using exploratory factor analysis, an oblique rotation, allowing dimensions to be intercorrelated, (Shimp and Sharma, 1983; Jenson et al, 1989) was computed on the six items that measure involvement output. A two factor solution was identified of 'enduring' and 'situational' involvement, accounting for 79.5 per cent of the variance in the data. The scale exhibits a satisfactory reliability coefficient of 0.8828. In contrast, risk and normative involvement are assumed to be independent. An orthogonal rotation, therefore, was computed, indicating 65.5 per cent of the variance in the data is due to the risk and normative factors. Again, a satisfactory reliability coefficient of 0.7112 was found. This two-step oblique/orthogonal analysis provides the initial evidence for the second model to be tested (Figure 8.1). The path diagram illustrated in Figure 8.1 details the two-stage development of a state of involvement. Motivation arises from an assessment of the purchase situation in terms of normative and risk evaluation which leads to a positive or negative emotion in terms of enduring and situational interest. Involvement is then placed in the context of the same antecedent and consequence of Model 2 (Figure 8.2).

Figure 8.1 Path Model 1

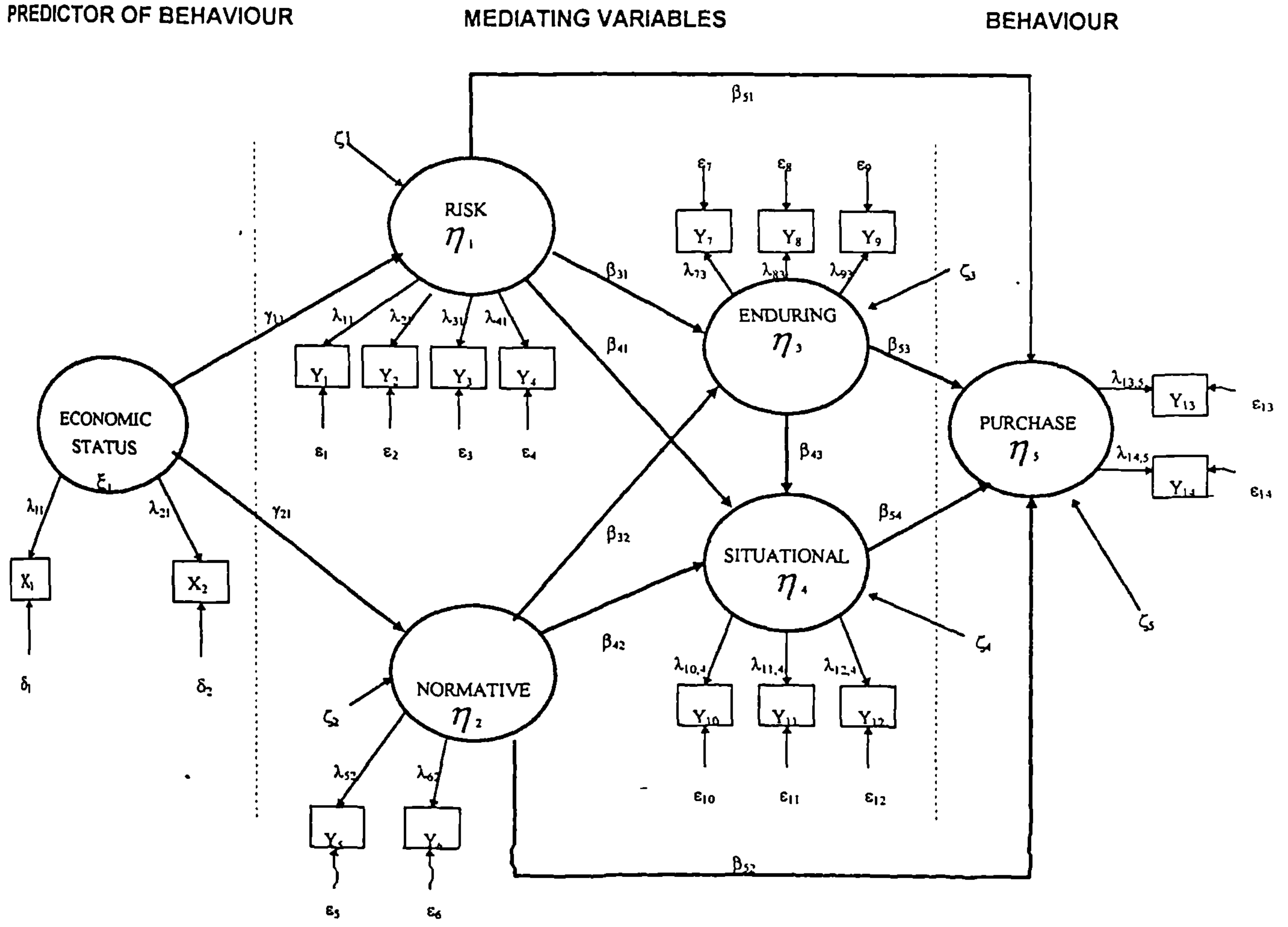
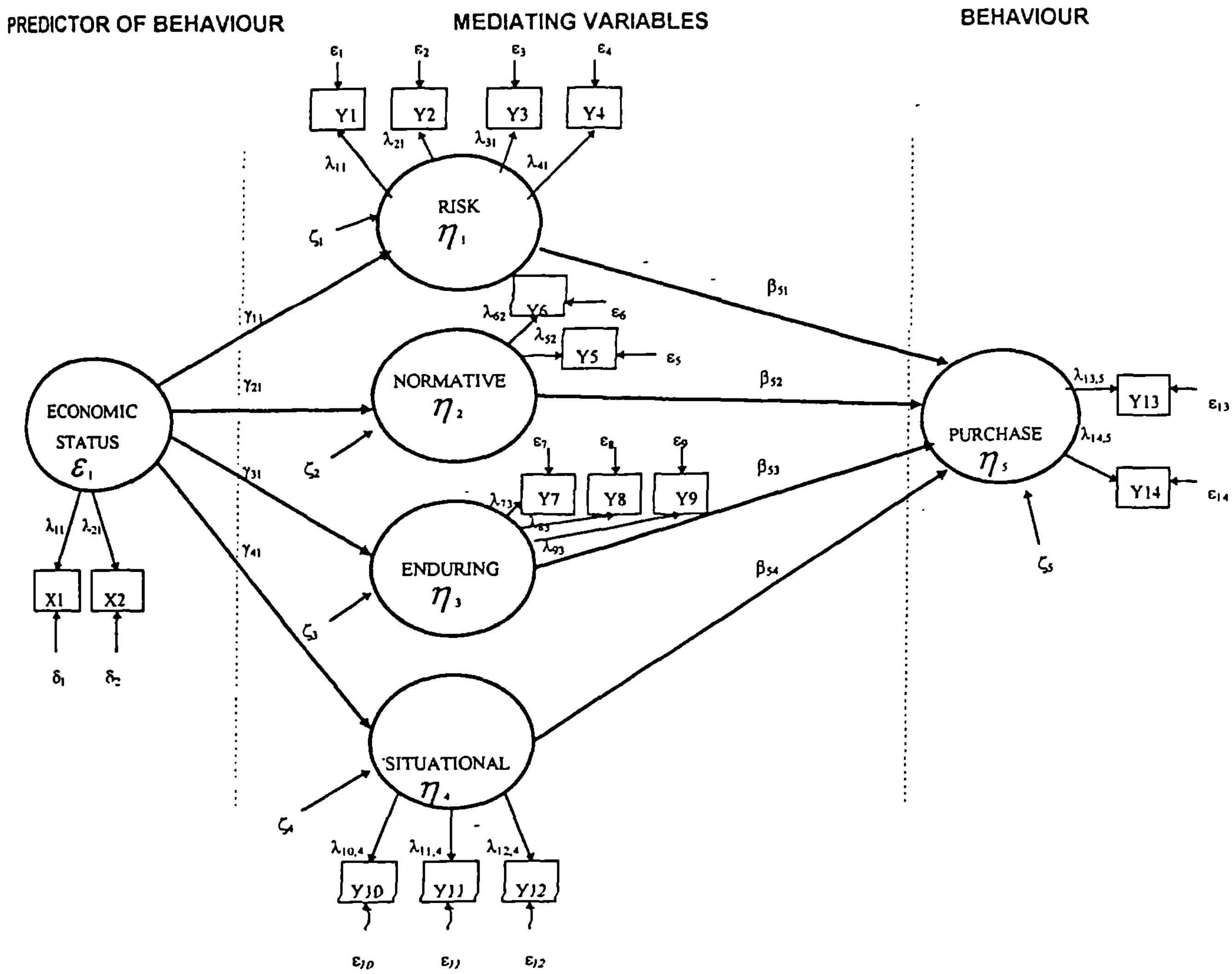


Figure 8.2 Path Model 2



Structural Modelling

The path diagrams, detailed in Figures 8.1 and 8.2, explain the relationships between the constructs under investigation. Before the relationships are tested using structural equation modelling via LISREL, the path components and linkages need to be explained: all exogeneous (independent) variables are represented by ksi (ξ), all endogeneous (dependent) variables are represented by eta (η). The arrows between the constructs represent how the constructs are related to each other, and are known as structural paths. The structural paths are quantified by the structural coefficients. A path coefficient is interpreted as the predicted amount of change in the criterion variable given a one unit change in the predictor variable (holding all other variables constant). In addition to the measurement errors, epsilon (ε) and delta (δ), there is a residual term, zeta (ζ), that is associated with the latent variable. This term represents all other factors that influence the latent variable other than the predictors stated in the model. ζ is assumed to be uncorrelated with the predictors of the latent variable. Of primary theoretical interest is the value and significance for beta (β) and gamma (γ), because they represent the estimates of the interaction effects.

The endogeneous and the exogeneous variables are analysed as elements of the covariance matrix, sigma (Σ), and can be written as functions of model parameters. Figures 8.1 and 8.2 are related by the system of structural equations expressed in Table 8.2. The structural models, outlined in Table 8.2, can be represented in matrix algebra form (Table 8.3). The structural equation modelling (SEM) software package utilised is LISREL v.7.0, available on in SPSS v.6.1.3. The matrices expressed in Table 8.3 can be applied directly into the command language of LISREL [•].

[•] Further details of SEM, and LISREL command construction can be found in a variety of references, including Sharma (1996); Hair et al (1995); Jöreskog and Sörbom (1989); and Jaccard and Wan (1996). Specific syntax utilised are detailed in Appendices 8.1 and 8.2.

Table 8.2 ***Structural Equations of the Competing Involvement Models***

Model 1	**Model 2**
Economic status influences risk and normative involvement, which in turn influence enduring and situational involvement which influence purchase (Figure 8.1).	Economic status influences the four dimensions of involvement (which are not correlated) which influence purchase (Figure 8.2).
$\eta_1 = \gamma_{11}\xi_1 + \zeta_1$	$\eta_1 = \gamma_{11}\xi_1 + \zeta_1$
$\eta_2 = \gamma_{21}\xi_1 + \zeta_2$	$\eta_2 = \gamma_{21}\xi_1 + \zeta_2$
$\eta_3 = \beta_{31}\eta_1 + \beta_{32}\eta_2 + \zeta_3$	$\eta_3 = \gamma_{31}\xi_1 + \zeta_3$
$\eta_4 = \beta_{41}\eta_1 + \beta_{42}\eta_2 + \beta_{43}\eta_3 + \zeta_4$	$\eta_4 = \gamma_{41}\xi_1 + \zeta_4$
$\eta_5 = \beta_{51}\eta_1 + \beta_{52}\eta_2 + \beta_{53}\eta_3 + \beta_{54}\eta_4 + \zeta_5$	$\eta_5 = \beta_{51}\eta_1 + \beta_{52}\eta_2 + \beta_{53}\eta_3 + \beta_{54}\eta_4 + \zeta_5$

Table 8.3 ***Matrix Algebra of the Competing Involvement Models***

Model 1

$$\begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \eta_3 \\ \eta_4 \\ \eta_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{11} \\ \gamma_{21} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \xi_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \beta_{31} & \beta_{32} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \beta_{41} & \beta_{42} & \beta_{43} & 0 & 0 \\ \beta_{53} & \beta_{53} & \beta_{53} & \beta_{53} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \eta_3 \\ \eta_4 \\ \eta_5 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \zeta_1 \\ \zeta_2 \\ \zeta_3 \\ \zeta_4 \\ \zeta_5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Model 2

$$\begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \eta_3 \\ \eta_4 \\ \eta_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{11} \\ \gamma_{21} \\ \gamma_{31} \\ \gamma_{41} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \xi_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \beta_{53} & \beta_{53} & \beta_{53} & \beta_{53} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \eta_3 \\ \eta_4 \\ \eta_5 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \zeta_1 \\ \zeta_2 \\ \zeta_3 \\ \zeta_4 \\ \zeta_5 \end{bmatrix}$$

8.3 The Measurement Model

Structural Equation Modelling Assumptions

Prior to the assessment of the measurement model, a number of assumptions for using this statistical tool need to be addressed. Specifically, parametric statistics assume that distribution parameters are known and that the analysis will use metric data. In addition, the type of data matrix that LISREL analyses needs to be considered.

As previously stated in Chapters 5 through 7, the sample is assumed to be normally distributed, with a continuous, interval measurement of consumer involvement with food. The data can be tested for its approximation to the standard normal distribution by examining the kurtosis and skewness of the distribution of variables in the structural equation (Byrne et al, 1989; Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 1996). The skewness of the variables range from -1.084 to +1.240, with a mean value of -0.43. The kurtosis ranges from -1.068 to +0.749, with a mean value of -0.18 (Appendix 8.3). These values are within an acceptable range from 0 providing sufficient evidence to suggest that the data approximates a normal distribution.

The types of statistical manipulation appropriate for a given group of data depend primarily on the level of measurement associated with the data - nominal, ordinal, *interval or ratio. For a classical discussion* of these categories of data see Stevens (1962). Many of the measures used in the social sciences, and specifically in marketing, are ordinal in character, for example likert scales. Parametric tests, however, assume that data are interval level. This disparity may introduce measurement error. These data nevertheless can be analysed effectively using data that assume interval level measures if departures from intervalness are not extreme (Jaccard and Wan, 1996). Data from individual semantic scale items are clearly ordinal. The total score, however, is usually treated as interval, as when the arithmetic mean score, which assumes equality of intervals, is computed (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The common practice by marketers, of averaging semantic scale data and utilising metric statistical techniques indicates that many researchers, at least on a de facto basis, consider semantic data to be interval in nature (Holmes, 1974). Those who perform such operations thus implicitly use a scaling method to convert data from ordinal to interval level of measurement when they sum over items to obtain a total score.

Individual observations can not be input into a structural equation modelling program. The raw data has to be converted into one of two types of matrices before estimation. Input for the program is a correlation or variance/covariance matrix of all indicators used in the model. Table 8.4 details the uses of the different types of matrices. Structural equation modelling was initially formulated for use with the variance/covariance matrix. The covariance matrix has the advantage of providing valid comparisons between different populations or samples, something not possible when models are estimated with a correlation matrix. The correlation matrix, however, has gained widespread use in many applications (Hair et al, 1995). Use of correlations is appropriate when the objective of the research is only to understand the pattern of relationships between constructs, but not to explain the total variance of a construct.

It is the objective of the structural equation modelling to examine the pattern of relationships among the exogeneous and endogeneous variables. The model, however, is likely to suffer from specification error, which is the omission of relevant variables in the model. Both theory and experience would suggest that there are additional predictors of involvement than culture and economic status that are tested in the research. These two points are limitations to the use of a covariance matrix. Covariances are used, however, as the most methodologically sound matrix which fulfils the maximum number of objectives of the research.

A covariance matrix has been used in the current research, therefore, to ensure that a true 'test of theory' is being performed, as the variances/covariances satisfy the assumptions of the methodology and are the appropriate form of the data for validating causal relationships (Hair et al, 1995).

Table 8.4 A Comparison of Covariance and Correlation Matrices for LISREL

Covariance Matrix	**Correlation Matrix**
Valid comparisons between different populations. ✓	
Difficult to interpret because coefficients must be interpreted in terms of the units of measure for the construct.	Common range that makes comparisons of the coefficients within a model possible. ✓
	A standardised matrix that has often been used.
To explain the total variance of a construct. ✓	To understand the pattern of relationships between constructs. ✓
Validates causal relationships / satisfies assumptions of methodology. ✓	Provides more conservative estimates of the significance of coefficients.

✓ = Use to which the matrix is required for in the current research

Assessment of Competing Measurement Models

Details of measurement model assessment have been provided in Chapter 6 for the involvement scale development and validation. Summaries of the competing measurements models have, therefore, been provided in Table 8.5, and the results commented on below.

Table 8.5 Assessment of Competing Measurement Models

Model 1	Model 2
Chi-Square = 1613.16 Degrees of freedom = 93	Chi-Square = 1627.81 Degrees of freedom = 96
GFI = .931 AGFI = .899 RGFI = .935 RMSR = .056	GFI = .929 AGFI = .899 RGFI = .932 RMSR = .055
Total Coefficient of Determination for Structural Equation = .658	Total Coefficient of Determination for Structural Equation = .927
T-Values = all significant	T-Values = all significant

As a measure of the entire structural equation, an overall coefficient of determination is calculated, similar to that found in multiple regression. Although no test of statistical significance can be performed, it provides a relative measure of fit for each structural equation. The total coefficient of determination for structural equations is a measure of the amount of total variance of all the endogeneous variables in the system of structural equations that is explained or accounted for by the set of exogeneous and/or other endogeneous variables. 65.8 per cent in model 1, and 92.7 per cent in model 2, of the total variance in all of the endogeneous variables is accounted for by the exogeneous and endogeneous variables in the structural model. In other words, the combined effect of the five factors in model 1 achieves a R^2 value of 65.8 per cent of the variance in purchase patterns. In model 2, 92.7 per cent of the variance is accounted for. Thus, a significant causal relationship has been identified in both models. Model 2, at this stage of evaluation, seems to be the stronger model, with a greater degree of variance explained by the predictors.

Goodness of fit is a measure of the correspondence of the actual or observed input matrix with that predicted from the proposed model. Assessing the goodness of fit of a model is more of a relative process than one with absolute criteria. The application of multiple measures will enable the researcher to gain a consensus across types of measures as to the acceptability of the proposed model. For both models, the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), as detailed in Chapter 6, are just acceptable. The desired threshold for these fit statistics is 0.9. Although this threshold has no statistical basis, practical experience and research have *demonstrated its usefulness in demonstrating* between acceptable and *unacceptable models. A value of 0.8, however, has often* been used as marginally acceptable (Hair et al, 1995). These fit statistics, however, are affected by sample size (page 175). As the sample is large, the Relative Goodness of Fit Index (RGFI) is seen as more appropriate. Both models provide acceptable levels of this fit criteria. Finally, the root mean square residual should fall in the acceptable range of 0.08 or less (Hair et al, 1995). Both models fall within this range, and, therefore, the percentage variance unexplained by the models is acceptable.

All factor loadings of the measurement instrument are significant (all t-values are larger than 6.0) and exceed the 0.4 level commonly considered meaningful in factor-analytic investigations (Ford et al, 1986). These findings support the convergent validity of the items (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Discriminant validity of the measurement instrument, confirming that the factors are sufficiently different from each other to capture unique constructs, was tested through multigroup analysis, also named 'nesting the model' (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The difference in χ^2 values between the model which constrains the covariance to be equal to 1.0 and the unconstrained model was significant to the 0.05 level. The findings from Chapter 6 (item-to-total correlations, scree test and factor loadings) as well as the LISREL results, provide support for the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement instrument (Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1991).

The modification indices of the LISREL output can be used to re-specify the hypothesised model. The modification index of a fixed parameter gives the approximate decrease in the χ^2 if the fixed parameter is freed (i.e. it is estimated). None of the modification indices for the loading of an item on the non-hypothesised factor was significant at the 0.05 level, and none of the estimated changes reported by LISREL exceeded 0.2 (Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 1996 [•]). Modification of the models, therefore, would not increase the fit to the data.

From an assessment of the measurement model, model 1 fits slightly better than model 2. Examining the structural equation coefficient of determination, model 2 is better than model 1. At this stage, therefore, both models can be thought of as good fits to the data. There is insufficient evidence, however, to decide which model is more appropriate. A perfect overall fit simply implies that, given the hypothesised model, the covariance matrix implied from its parameter estimates is equal to the sample covariance matrix, and, therefore, the residual matrix is equal to zero. All it suggests is that the model fits the data. The structural paths in the model could be strong or weak. The next step in the analysis, therefore, is an assessment of the structural model.

8.4 The Structural Model

The Structural Relationships of Involvement

The most obvious examination of the structural model involves the significance of the estimated coefficients. By examining the t-values for each coefficient, the estimated coefficient can be tested for statistical significance for the hypothesised causal relationship (i.e. to test if the parameter estimates are significantly different from zero). All the estimated parameters, for both models, are statistically significant at the 0.05 level or better.

[•] See Kaplan (1989) for an extensive discussion of the use of estimated change parameters in LISREL

In the standardised solution of the LISREL structural coefficient assessments, the variance of the constructs are standardised to 1. In the completely standardised solution the estimates are standardised with respect to the variances of the constructs and also with respect to the variances of the indicators. Thus, coefficients closely approximate effect sizes shown by beta weights in regression. An effect size is:

> "the degree to which the phenomenon is present in the population .... the degree to which the null hypothesis is false ... the effect size is some specific non-zero value in the population. The larger this value, the greater the degree to which the phenomenon under study is manifested" (Cohen, 1977, p.9-10).

Coefficients (γ and β) are the most appropriate measurements of effect sizes for estimating linear relationships in survey research (Fern and Monroe, 1996). Explained variance effect-size indicators (e.g. overall coefficient of determination), although useful in evaluating the fit of a model, are only recommended as effect-size indicators for non-linear relationships and for random-effects experiments (Fern and Monroe, 1996). The use of coefficients are more appropriate in evaluating which model to choose, therefore, than the overall coefficient of determination (OCD).

As detailed above, the OCD of model 2 is greater than for model 1. The variance of the endogeneous variable (purchase) is explained more by the structural links in model 2 than in model 1. The OCD values for both models, however, provide satisfactory conclusions. In comparison, an assessment of the coefficients of models 1 and 2 show that model 1 has greater substantive effect than model 2. Coefficients near zero have little, if any, substantive effect, whereas an increase in value corresponds to increased importance in the causal relationships. Figures 8.3 and 8.4 detail the structural coefficients of the models. As greater importance is attributed to the structural relationships of model 1, it will be retained for further analysis.

Figure 8.3 Structural Coefficients of Path Model 1

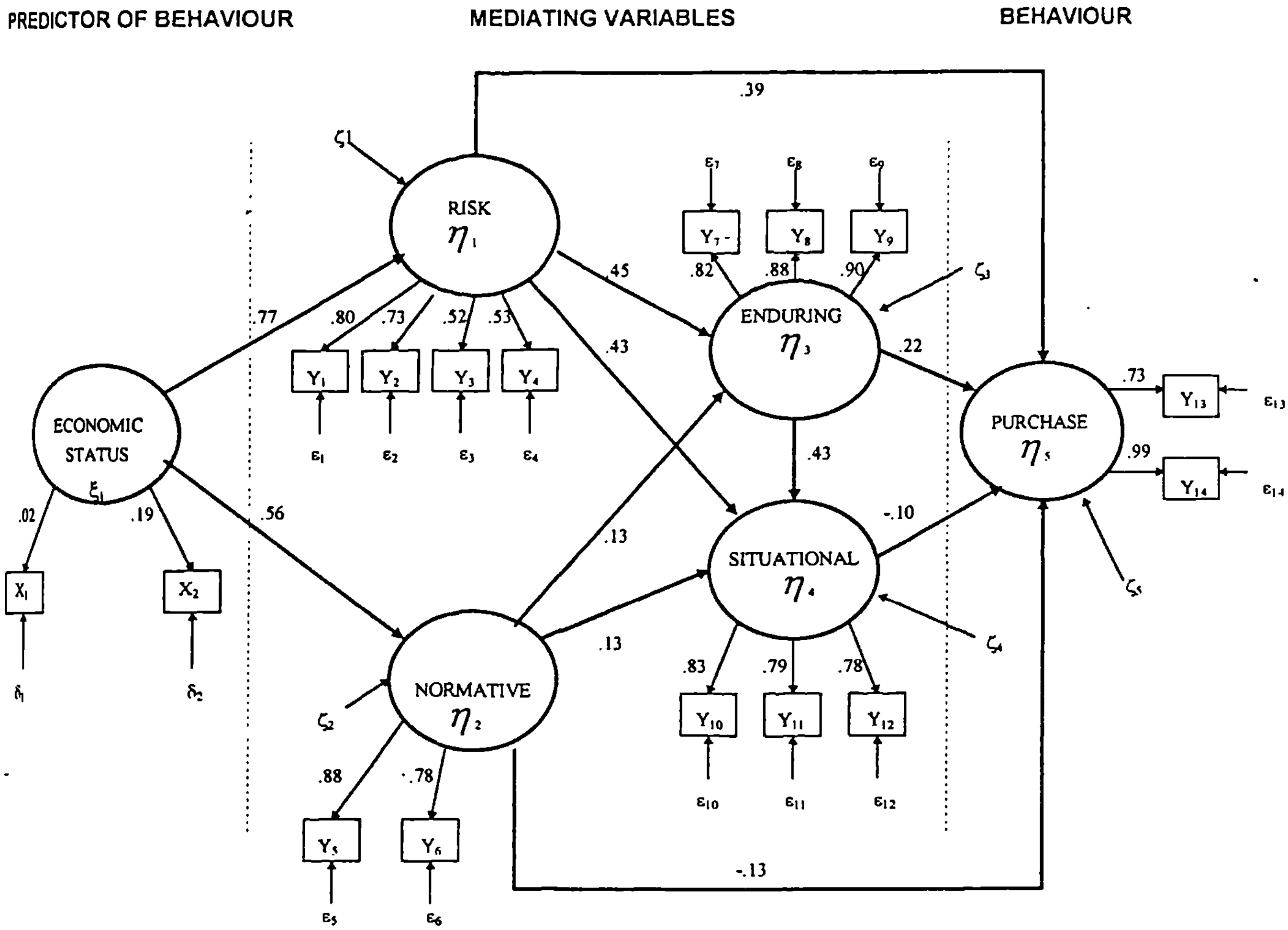
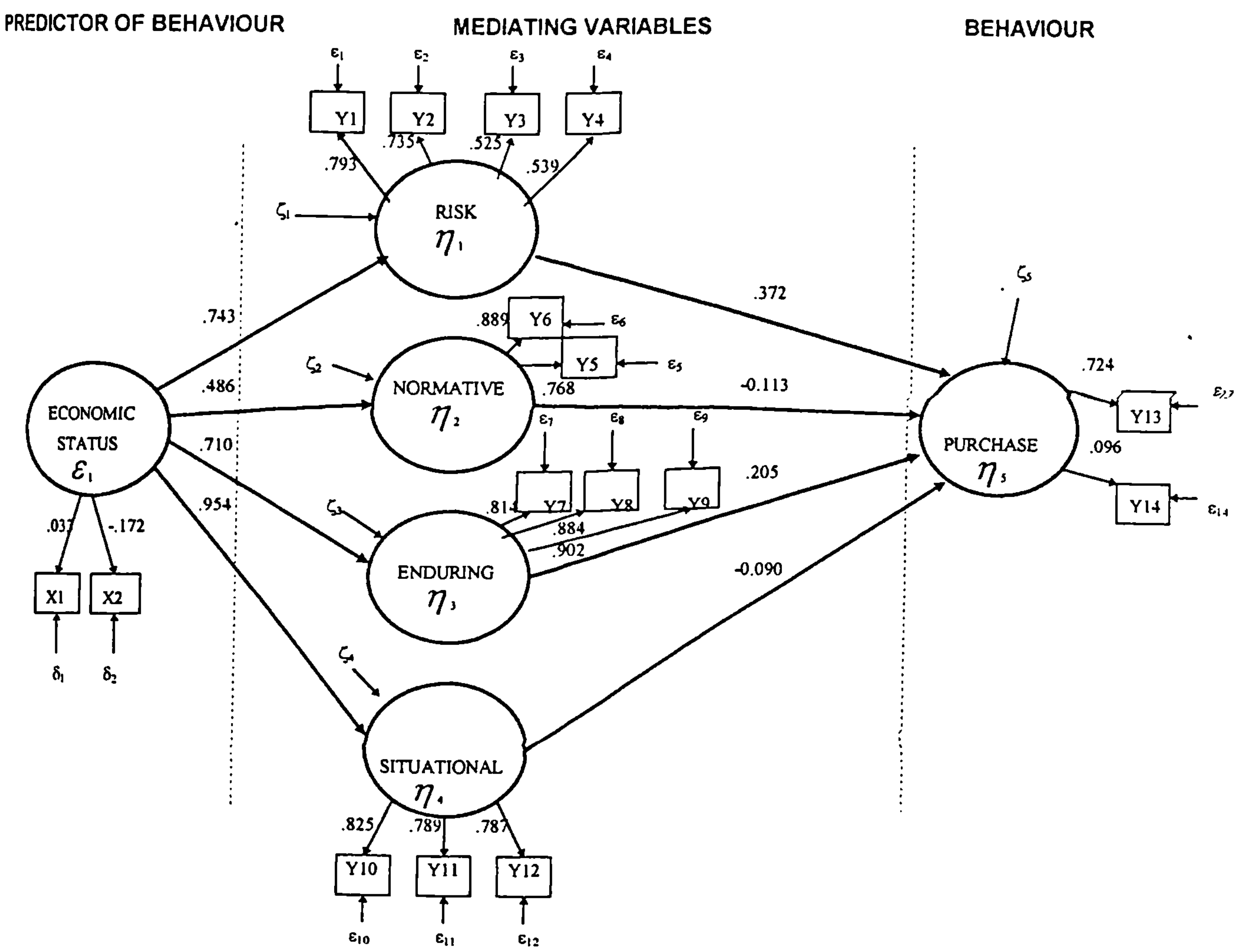


Figure 8.4 Structural Coefficients of Path Model 2



It is evident that the dimensions of involvement provide a significant influence on purchase. In addition, they provide a smaller, but significant, influence on shopping frequency (Figure 8.5). The strongest influence on both purchase and shopping frequency is 'risk involvement'. Risk produces a positive influence on purchase but a negative influence on shopping frequency. That is, a consumer that is highly risk involved will be likely to buy more. In contrast, the consumer will shop less often. Although the influences are statistically significant, the substantive or practical significance needs to be addressed. The coefficients of direct effects of involvement to purchase are relatively small. The combined indirect and direct effects do, however, substantively influence behaviour (Sharma, 1996). These effects may also be considered by country. Figure 8.6 plots the coefficients of the structural links between involvement and purchase by each of the five countries investigated. Although risk involvement influences purchase the most on the data as a whole, the influence of normative involvement is stronger than risk in Spain and Germany. This does not imply that Spaniards and Germans are more normatively involved, but that the strength of the influence between normative involvement and purchase is stronger in these countries. The level of normative involvement is particularly pertinent to identify in these countries to develop and target marketing strategies effectively.

Figure 8.6 Structural Coefficients of Involvement and Purchase By Country

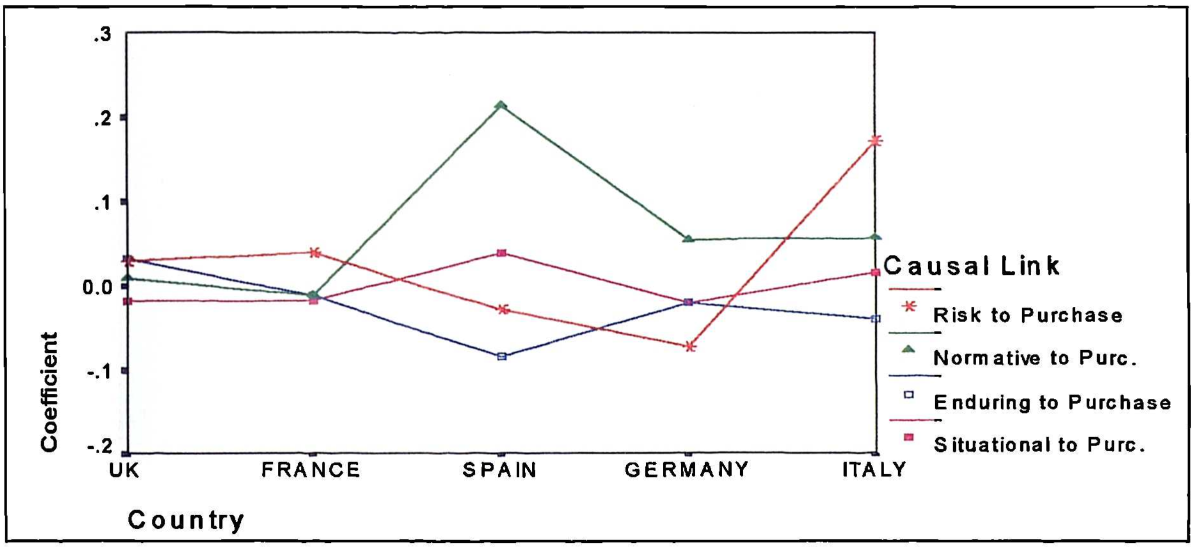
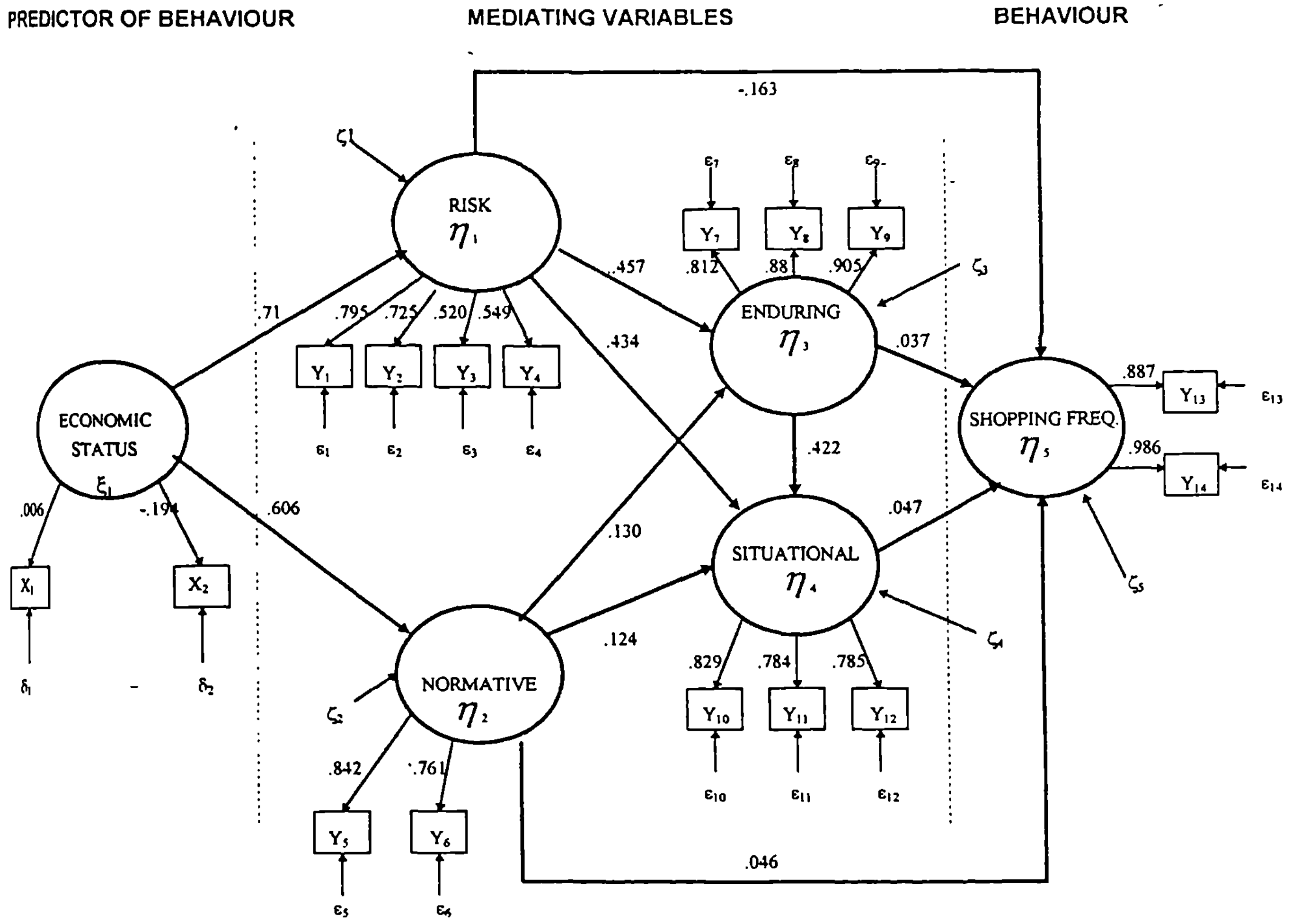
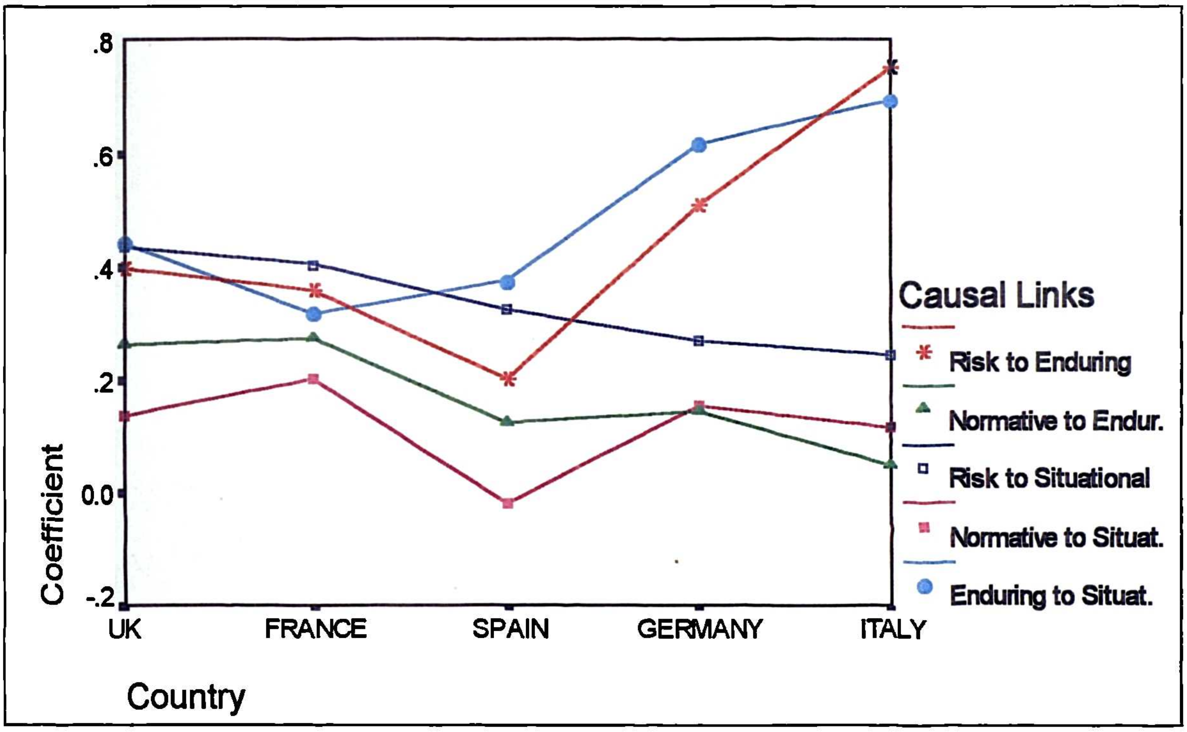


Figure 8.5 Structural Coefficients of Economic Status, Involvement and Shopping Frequency



It is also interesting to note the interrelationships between the four identified dimensions of involvement. Risk involvement influences both situational and enduring involvement, as does normative involvement, but to a lesser extent. Figure 8.7 contrasts the structural links between involvement dimensions across each country. Situational involvement is also strongly influenced by enduring involvement, which is empirical evidence for the argument that an individual may be situationally involved, or separately, their involvement may be enduring. If the individual exhibits enduring involvement, however, the individual will also be situationally involved (for example, see Knox and Walker, 1995).

Figure 8.7 Structural Coefficients of the Dimensions of Involvement



The Influence of Culture on Involvement

Implicit in the structural model developed above is the construct of culture. As the measurement of culture is a categorical variable, it is inappropriate to directly test the structural relationship of culture to involvement. To test whether culture imposes different levels of involvement, therefore, the structural pathways of the model are analysed to determine whether they are the same or different across multiple country groups (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1989; Jaccard and Wan, 1996). The structural pathways take the form of the beta (Β) and gamma (Γ) matrix. To test if there are group differences on any of the latent structural coefficients, across-group equality constraints are applied simultaneously to the entire gamma and beta matrices. A statistically non-significant change in the chi-square as a result of such a constraint would imply that none of the coefficients in the gamma or beta matrices differ appreciably between the five country groups (Bollen, 1989). The null and alternative hypotheses for this test are stated as:

H_0: $B_{UK} = B_{France} = B_{Spain} = B_{Italy} = B_{Germany}$

H_1: $B_{UK} \neq B_{France} \neq B_{Spain} \neq B_{Italy} \neq B_{Germany}$

H_0: $\Gamma_{UK} = \Gamma_{France} = \Gamma_{Spain} = \Gamma_{Italy} = \Gamma_{Germany}$

H_1: $\Gamma_{UK} \neq \Gamma_{France} \neq \Gamma_{Spain} \neq \Gamma_{Italy} \neq \Gamma_{Germany}$

These hypotheses are tested by conducting two separate analyses. In the first analysis, separate models for each country sample are estimated. The total chi-square value is equal to the sum of the chi-squares for each country model, and the total degrees of freedom are equal to the sum of the degrees of freedom for each model. This analysis is referred to as the unconstrained model, as the parameter matrices of the models for the five country groups are not constrained to be equal to each other. The second analysis is referred to as the constrained model, that is the parameter matrices of the five models are constrained to be equal. The hypotheses are tested by employing a chi-square difference test. The difference in the chi-squares of the two analyses follows a chi-square distribution with the degrees of freedom equal to the difference in the degrees of freedom of the two analyses. If the *null hypothesis is rejected at the 1 per cent significance level, the* alternative hypothesis states that there are significant differences in the structural pathways of the five country models.

The multigroup analysis syntax is provided in Appendix 8.2. The 'split' option in the matrix data command of the syntax is used to indicate that multiple matrices will be read, (i.e. the total five-country data set is split into five groups by country). The NG option in the data command specifies that it is a multiple-sample analysis consisting of five groups.

Results show that both the gamma and beta matrices are significantly different between country groups (Tables 8.6 to 8.8). The causal links between economic status and involvement, and between involvement and purchase differ between countries. This implies, therefore, that culture imposes different structural relationships between the antecedents and consequences of involvement.

Table 8.6 Test of Equivalence of Beta Matrices Between Country Groups

Model	X^2	Degrees of freedom
Constrained	16199.60	489
Unconstrained	13823.38	465
Difference	**2376.22** **X^2 value to 1% significance level with 24 df = 42.9798**	**24**

Table 8.7 Test of Equivalence of Gamma Matrices Between Country Groups

Model	X^2	Degrees of freedom
Constrained	16367.47	509
Unconstrained	13823.38	465
Difference	**2544.09** **X^2 value to 1% significance level with 44 df = 76.970**	**44**

Table 8.8 Test of Equivalence of Gamma and Beta Matrices Between Country Groups

Model	X^2	Degrees of freedom
Constrained	16308.29	509
Unconstrained	13823.38	465
Difference	**2484.91** **X^2 value to 1% significance level with 44 df = 76.970**	**44**

It has been established that the structural pathways differ significantly by country. In addition to testing for the presence of an interaction effect between variables, it is appropriate to consider an index of effect size in order to gain an appreciation of the magnitude of the effect. One such index is the difference in the magnitude of the relevant latent structural coefficients. Appendix 8.4 details the structural pathways of the exogeneous and endogeneous variables in the developed model by each country and each product. A total of 40 outputs, therefore, were created and applied into SPSS's non-relational database. Each regression coefficient was then plotted by country and product to compare cross-cultural effect sizes. Figure 8.8 to 8.18 detail the results. The hypothesis of significant differences between structural links has already been tested. It is now interesting to compare the coefficients of the effect sizes graphically. The effect sizes detailed in the graphs, therefore, are implied to be significantly different from each other.

Figure 8.8 Comparison of Effect Sizes (γ_{11}) by Country and Product

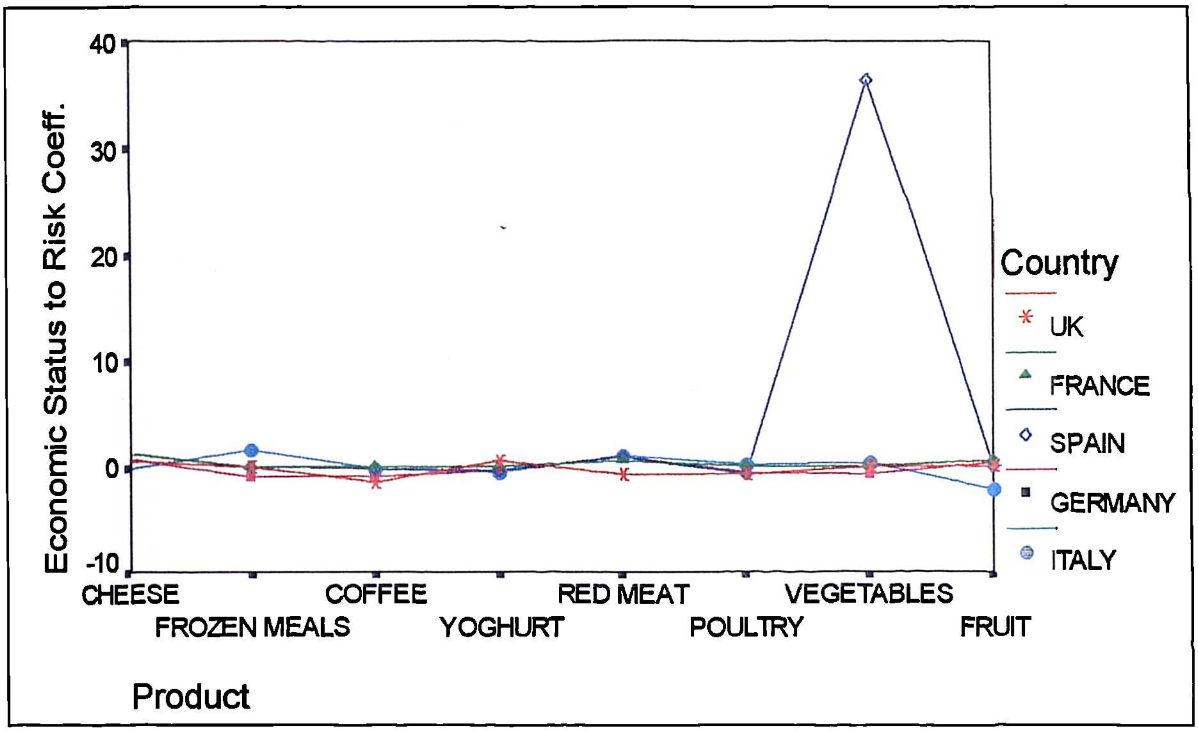


Figure 8.9 Comparison of Effect Sizes (γ_{21}) by Country and Product

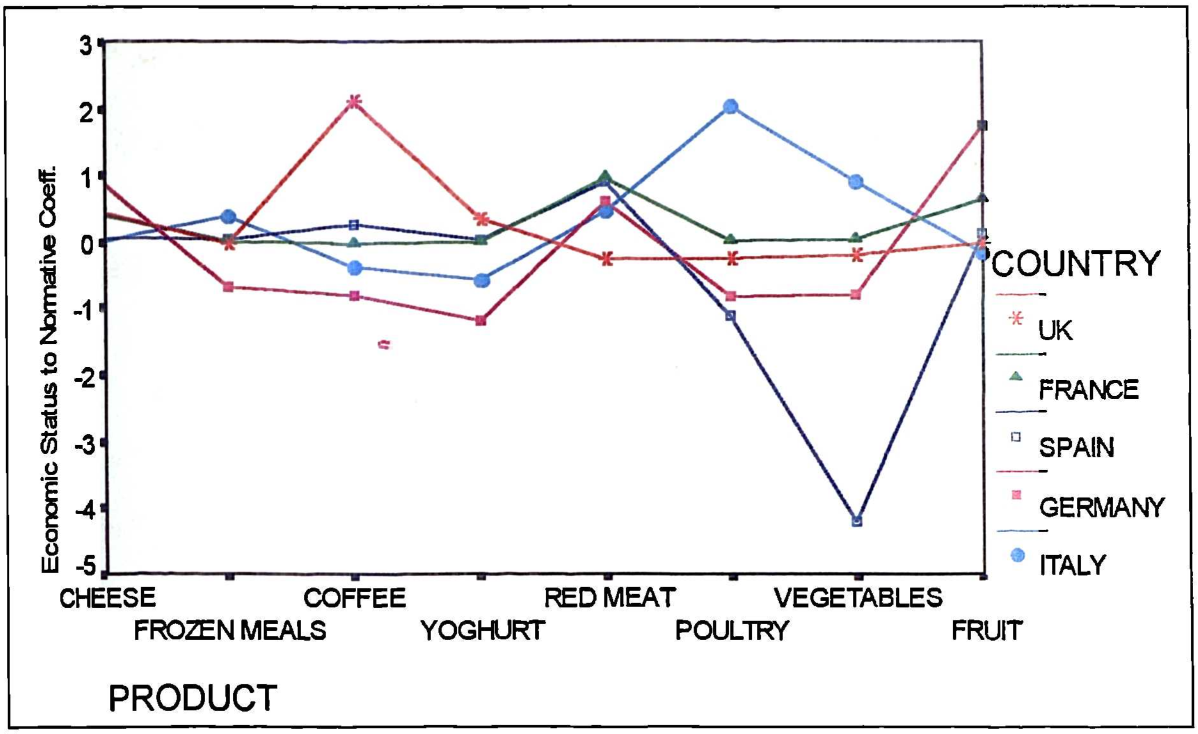


Figure 8.10 Comparison of Effect Sizes (β_{31}) by Country and Product

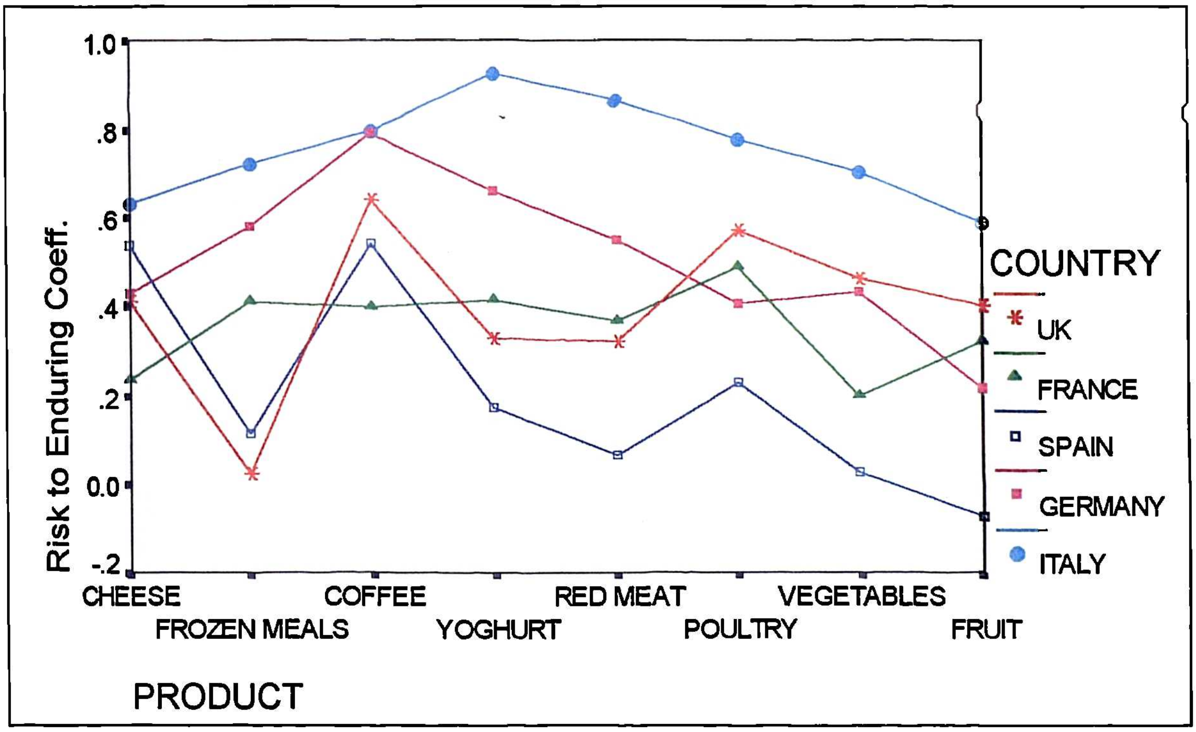


Figure 8.11 Comparison of Effect Sizes (β_{32}) by Country and Product

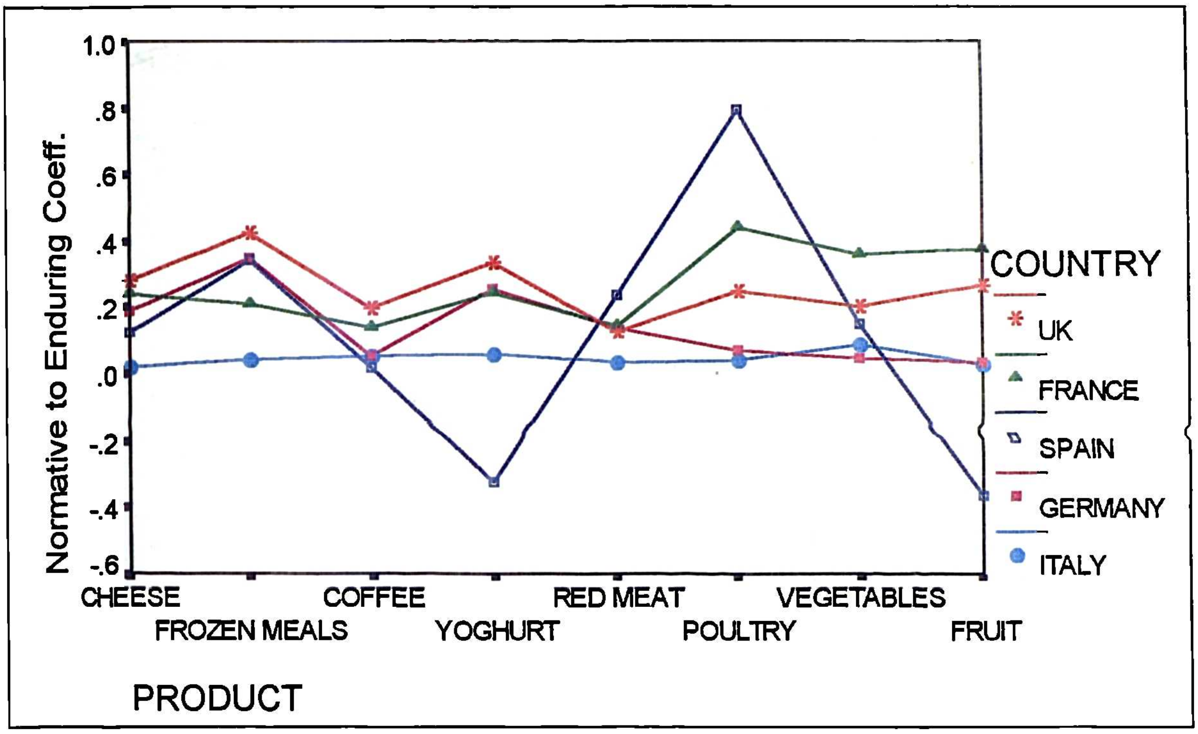


Figure 8.12 Comparison of Effect Sizes (β_{41}) by Country and Product

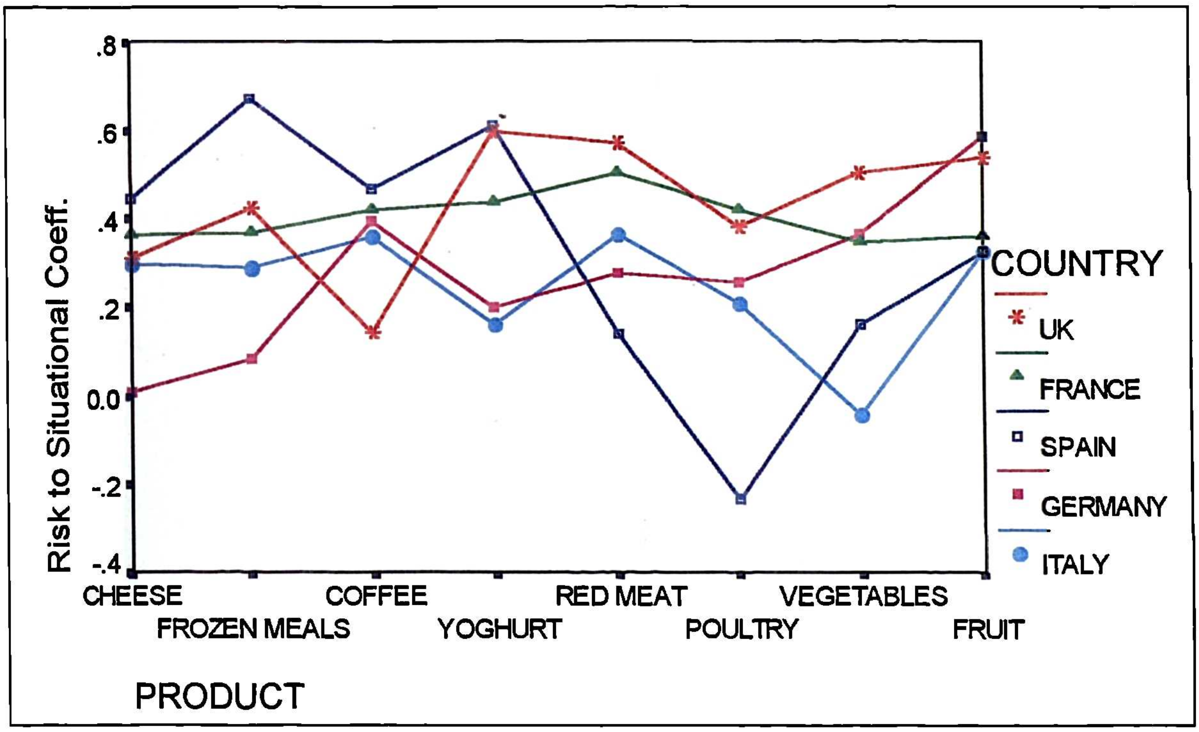


Figure 8.13 Comparison of Effect Sizes (β_{42}) by Country and Product

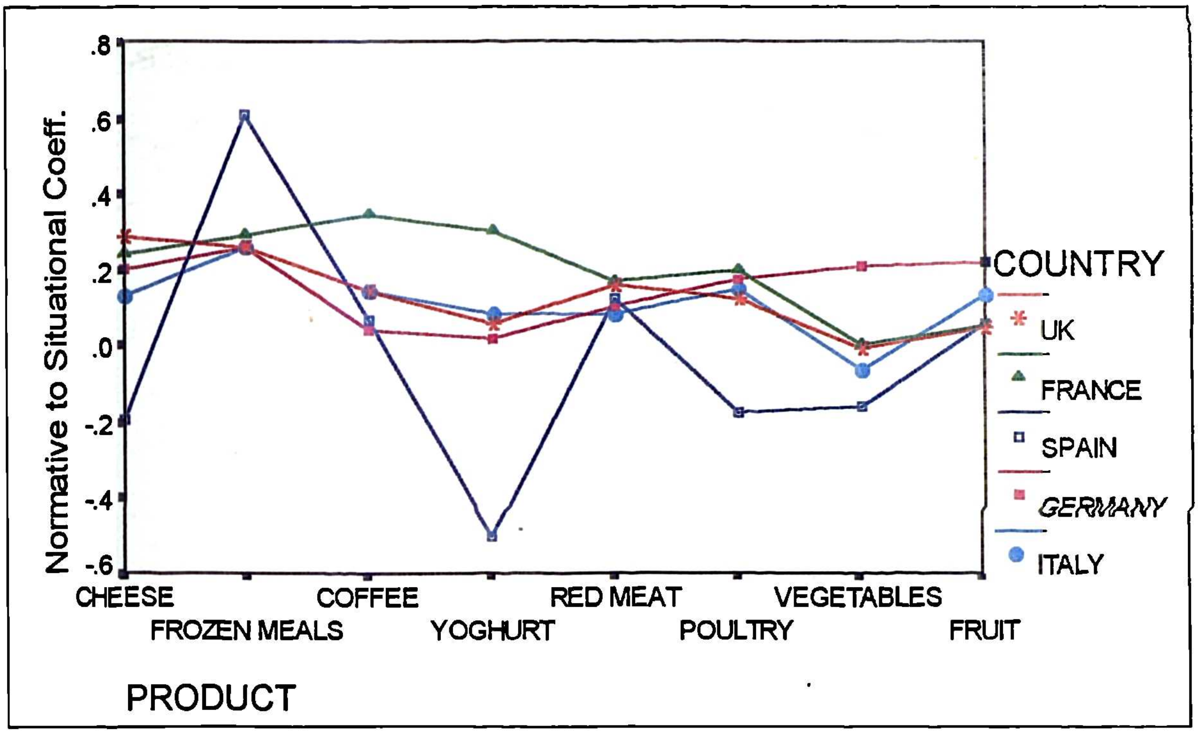


Figure 8.14 Comparison of Effect Sizes (β_{43}) by Country and Product

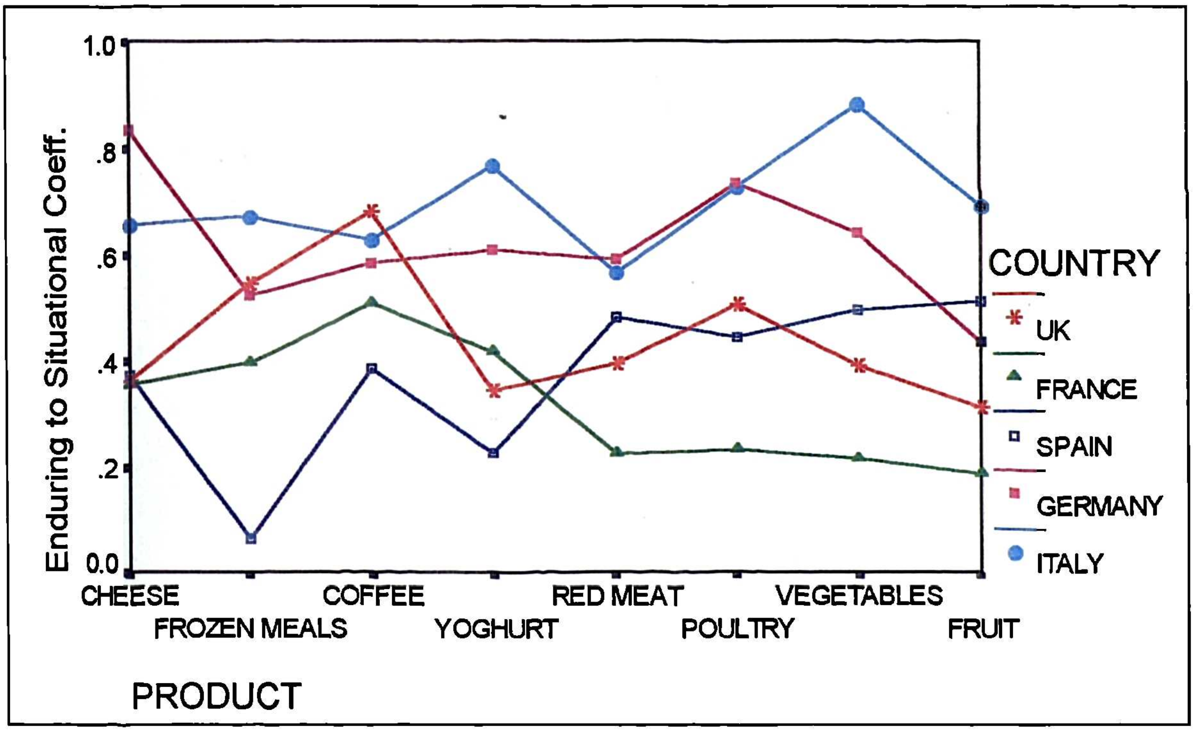


Figure 8.15 Comparison of Effect Sizes (β_{51}) by Country and Product

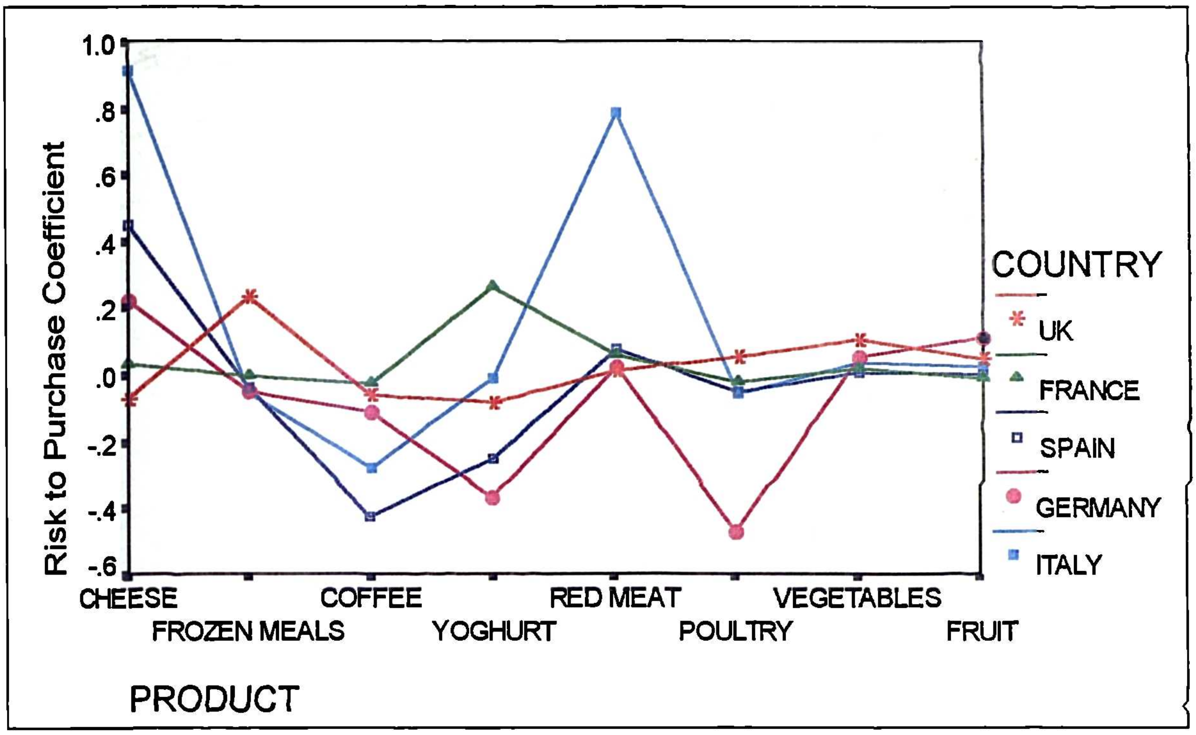


Figure 8.16 Comparison of Effect Sizes (β_{52}) by Country and Product

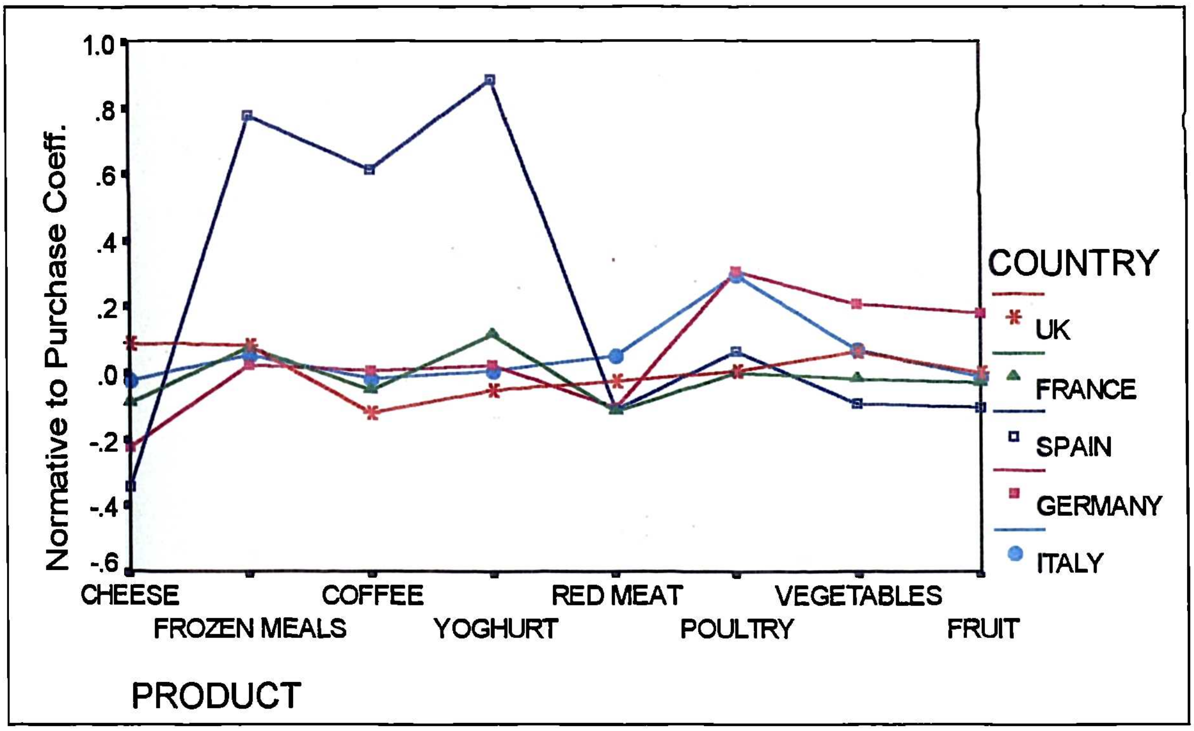


Figure 8.17 Comparison of Effect Sizes (β_{53}) by Country and Product

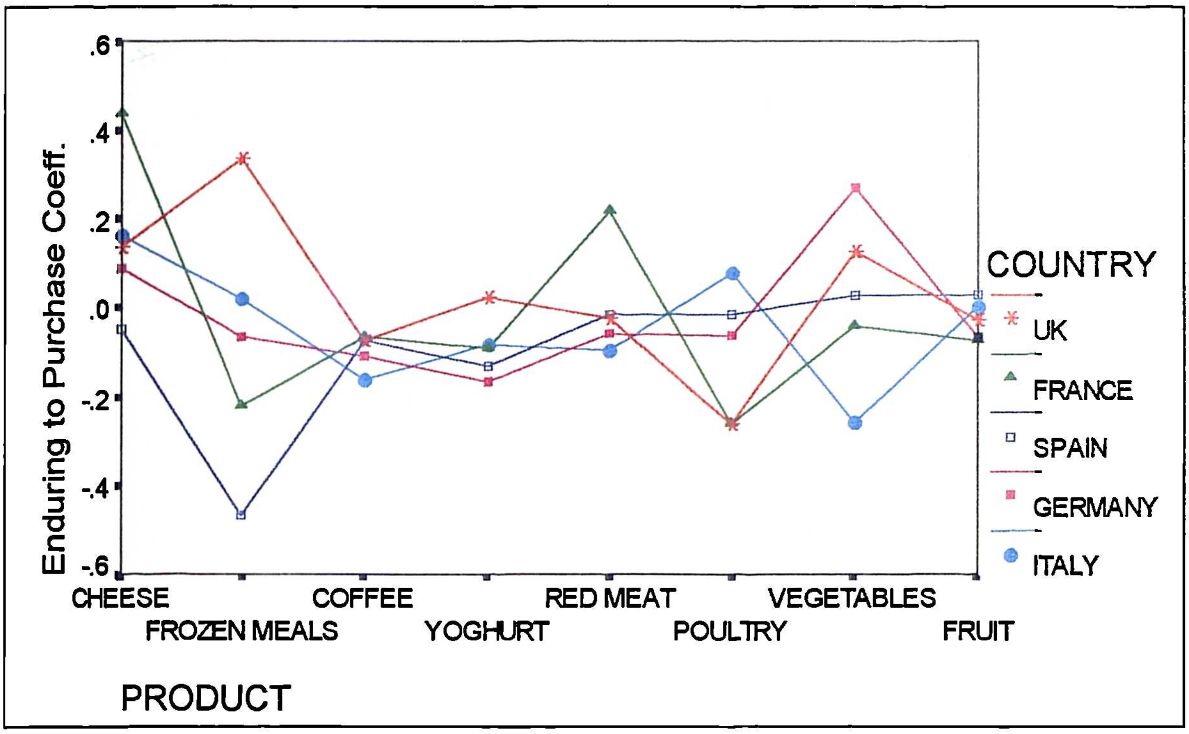
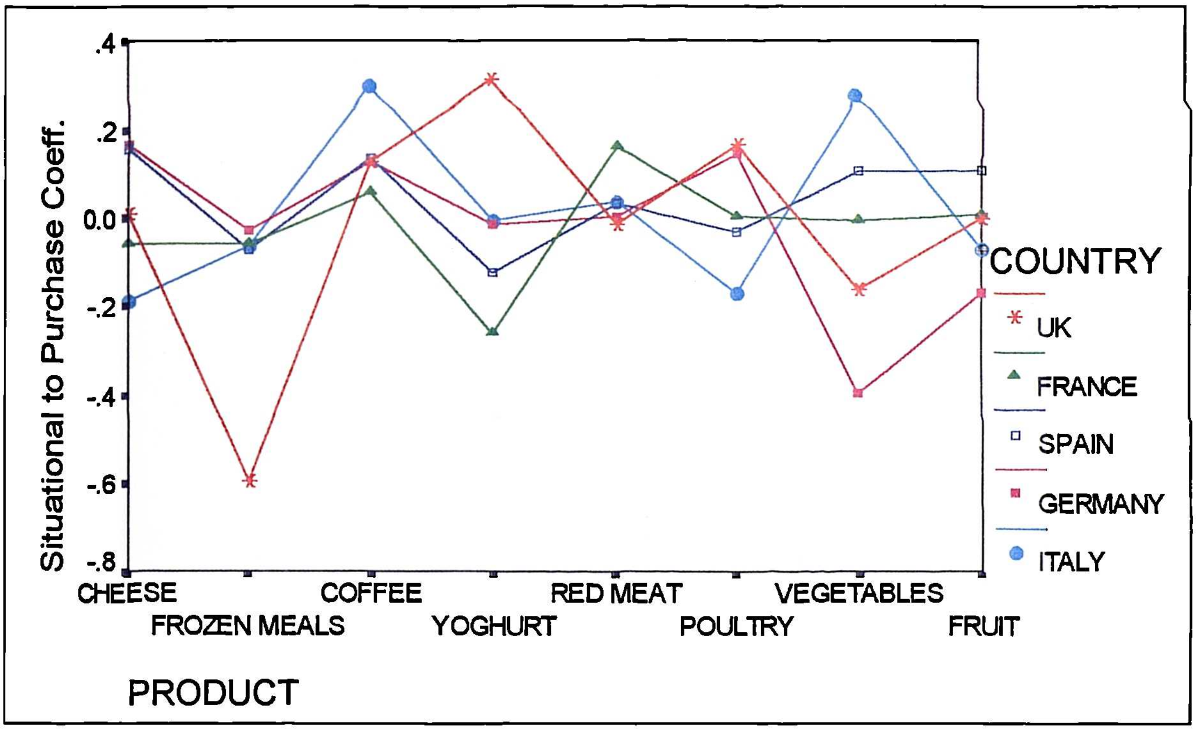


Figure 8.18 Comparison of Effect Sizes (β_{54}) by Country and Product



8.5 Summary and Conclusions

The chapter has considered the context of involvement; to place the variable under investigation into the wider environment of purchase behaviour. Specifically, the structural relationships between one antecedent (economic status) and two consequences (purchase and shopping frequency) have been analysed. The decision of whether or not the hypotheses (developed in Chapter 5, and subsequently tested in Chapter 7) are substantiated, is summarised in Table 8.9. All five pertinent null hypotheses are confidently rejected at the 5 per cent significance level.

Table 8.9 Testing the Null Hypotheses - Part B

Null Hypothesis	Decision	State of Nature
1. One culture does not impose different involvement levels on individuals.	Rejected.	It is statistically significant that culture does impose involvement differently on individuals.
2. Involvement levels do not influence food consumption.	Rejected.	Involvement does influence purchase.
3. Involvement levels do not influence food shopping patterns.	Rejected.	Involvement does influence shopping frequency.
4. Culture does not influence food consumption.	Rejected.	Culture does influence food purchase.
5. Culture does not influence food shopping patterns.	Rejected.	Culture does influence shopping frequency.

Statistically significant results suggest that involvement does influence purchase and shopping frequency. In addition, these influences differ by country. Chapter 7 identified that different involvement levels were evident in different countries. Chapter 8 has additionally identified that the strength of the relationship between involvement and its consequences differ across cultures. Culture does, therefore, impose different involvement levels on individuals. Thus, involvement is a pertinent and valuable mediator of behaviour for marketing management to manipulate when developing abroad, particularly when retailers are adapting their store operations to local demand. Consequently, Chapter 10 considers the application of these findings for marketing strategy. Specifically, by synthesising the results of the past two chapters, a framework for identifying cross-cultural marketing strategies is developed.

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CHAPTER 9

FORMULATING A CROSS-CULTURAL MARKETING STRATEGY

9.0 Introduction

The previous three chapters have ascertained that the construct 'involvement' differs across cultures, and that consumers' involvement in food impacts on purchase propensity and shopping frequency. A consumer's involvement, therefore, has direct application at the point of sale, and store operations may be adapted to take advantage of this manipulable construct. The results imply that consumer behaviour in food purchase may be sufficiently different to make it impractical to use standardised marketing strategies across market segments that span different cultures and economies. How to identify appropriate international market segments, and apply efficient and effective development strategies are questions that have repeatedly been raised by marketers. By applying the construct of involvement, Chapter 9 posits one possible framework to address these problems. Specifically, Chapter 9 is divided into 4 sections. Firstly, the structure versus the level of the involvement construct is contrasted, to provide an initial understanding of when to use globalised strategies. Second, consumer perceptions are grouped into homogeneous clusters for the purpose of target marketing. A framework for cross-cultural marketing strategy (CroCMaS) is then developed and, the final section applies the framework into the consumer dataset.

9.1 Construct Difference Versus Distinction

As previously discussed in Chapter 5, a conceptually equivalent measurement instrument is a prerequisite for identifying cross-cultural/national differences and similarities. Chapter 6 demonstrates that the developed measurement instrument of involvement is equivalent across the five countries investigated and, therefore, 'true' comparisons can be made. Theoretically, if cultural commonalities are evident, a globalisation strategy may be appropriate. Alternatively, although the structure of a construct may be perceived as similar (equivalent), levels of the construct may be disparate, and intra- or inter-cultural/national differences may be used to create customised niche strategies. For example, in food distribution cost and quality appear to be culturally-equivalent constructs (Mueller et al, 1996). When purchasing a food product in both the UK and Bulgaria, although the structure of the constructs may be perceived similarly (i.e. price and quality mean the same thing in both cultures and, therefore, the measurements of the constructs are equivalent), there may be differences between importance or levels of use. In Bulgaria, the emphasis may be on reducing price, whereas in the UK the emphasis may need to be quality and, therefore, marketing strategies should be adapted appropriately (Figure 9.1). Table 9.1 summarises the simple concept of differences versus distinctions in a data set and the strategic implications arising from the existence of either.

Figure 9.1 An Illustration of Intra-Cultural Distinctions

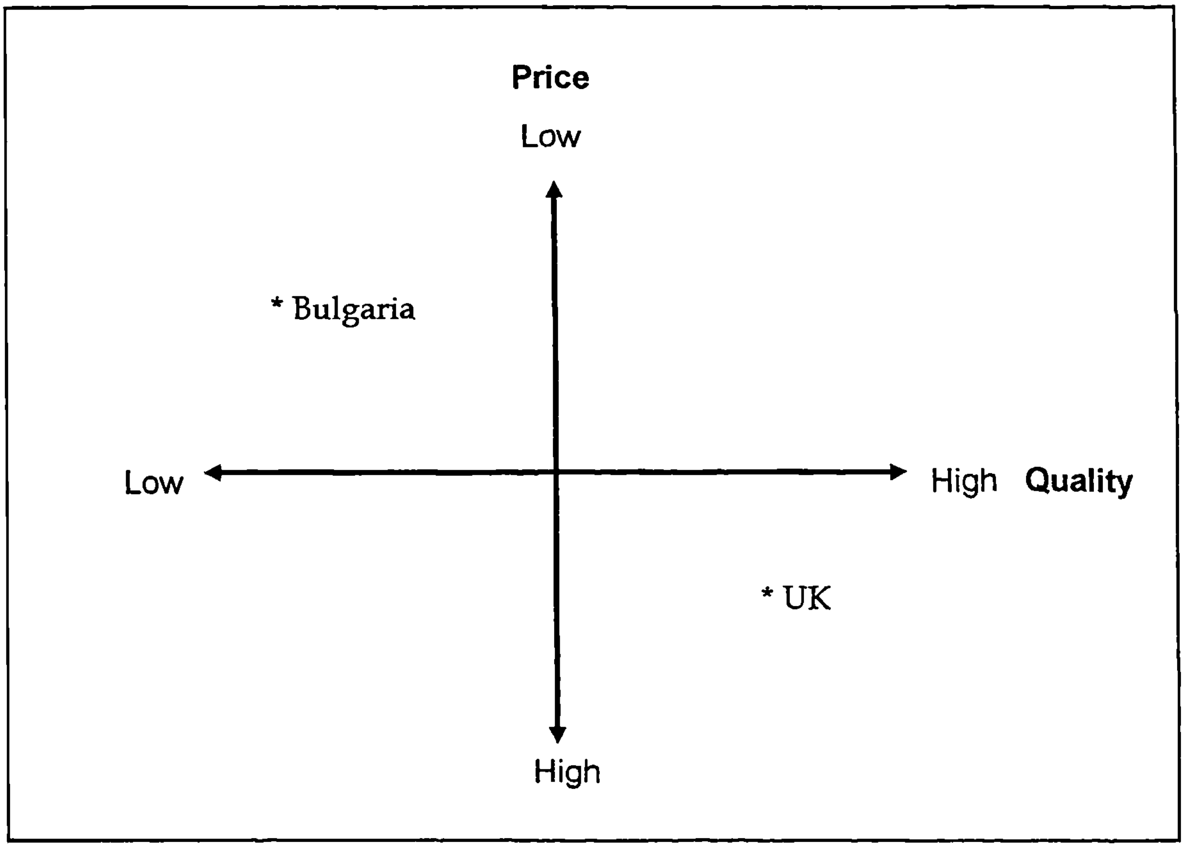


Table 9.1 Differences Versus Distinctions in a Data Set

	Differences	Distinctions	
Equivalence	Construct not equivalent	Construct equivalent	Construct equivalent
Cultural Comparisons	No cross-cultural/national comparisons can be made	Commonalities	Factor scores different Scale means different
Strategic Implications	Multi-national strategy	Globalisation	Customisation

The strategic implications arising from differences or distinctions in a data set indicate that while globalisation rests on inter-market similarities, customisation focuses on inter-market differences. The two approaches cannot simply be put together as a continuum of bi-polars, since they capture the market from different perspectives. Yet it would be unrealistic to isolate the two as totally unrelated approaches. Indeed, the situation of markets being increasingly integrated in many parts of the world does not necessarily mandate a strategy of universal standardisation (Perry, 1990; Douglas and Wind, 1987; Jain, 1989). In most cases, a global marketing strategy that provides a standard basic policy for all relevant countries will be followed by its adaptation to each national market (Kosaka, 1992). It can be argued, therefore, that globalisation and customisation should be regarded as inter-dependent components within the domain of marketing strategy.

Accepting the inter-dependency of globalisation and customisation, analysis of the market for the best marketing strategy must be anchored on some perspective that encompasses both inter-market and intra-market orientation without being handicapped by national boundaries. It has been suggested that the concept of 'involvement' can serve as a 'generic' parameter that provides measurement of consumers' response to products (Broderick and Cui-Chi, 1996). It is generic because, on the one hand, it reflects consumers' cognitive relevance of the products on account of consumers' own meaning systems, on the other hand it captures similarities and differences, beyond national boundaries, of the nature of product characteristics. From this point of view, using consumer involvement as a measure may help not only to achieve the reality of 'inter-cultural marketing' (Perry, 1990), but also to transcend to 'culture-specific global orientation' that captures both inter and intra-cultural dimensions.

9.2 Identifying Target Markets

The first stage in using consumer involvement as a generic parameter for 'culture-specific global orientation' is to identify whether the construct and a resultant behaviour can be grouped together in some meaningful way. *Cluster analysis* classifies objects so that each object is very similar to others in the cluster with respect to some predetermined selection criterion. Identifying groups of consumers, through cluster analysis, with similar involvement and purchase levels provides the initial evidence of the importance of the construct for international strategy.

Hierarchical cluster analysis utilising Ward's method (Hair et al, 1993) to identify the optimum number of clusters, followed by non-hierarchical cluster analysis was computed on the data to group consumers according to similar levels of involvement with food. A two-cluster solution was chosen as the most theoretically appropriate, in that consumers were identified as clustering into either high or low involvement groups (Appendix 9.1). Through analysing the variance of the country means by cluster membership it is evident that cluster membership differs across Europe (Appendix 9.2). All countries possess groups of highly involved and low involved consumers. The size of these groups, however, differ significantly (Figure 9.2). For example, more French food consumers fall into the highly involved cluster than into the low involvement cluster as may be deduced from earlier results. The converse is true for Spanish and German consumers. Consumers were then identified on the basis of their purchase level within each cluster. Table 9.2 identifies the differing percentages of consumers that fall into each of the four involvement/purchase segments. Above average involvement with food and above average purchase is, therefore, experienced by 31 percent of total respondents.

To use these attitudes and behaviours to segment a market, the respondents should be grouped together according to some identifiable characteristic. Nationality discriminates significantly between both involvement levels and purchase patterns. For example, Spanish consumers tend to exhibit low involvement, low purchase food shopping behaviour (Figure 9.3). It may be argued that the low involved/low purchase segment exhibits the following characteristics: low risk perception and, therefore, low brand loyalty, with less time spent on evaluating alternatives. If purchase is low, retail marketers need to stimulate demand through trial. To increase involvement, communicating different situations for product use may be stressed. As less time is spent on evaluating alternatives, retailers' own-label brands should be placed in high visibility displays. If items are marginally relocated, shoppers are likely to increase their reliance on external cues since their knowledge of the store environment is depleted.

Figure 9.2 Identifying Levels of Involvement

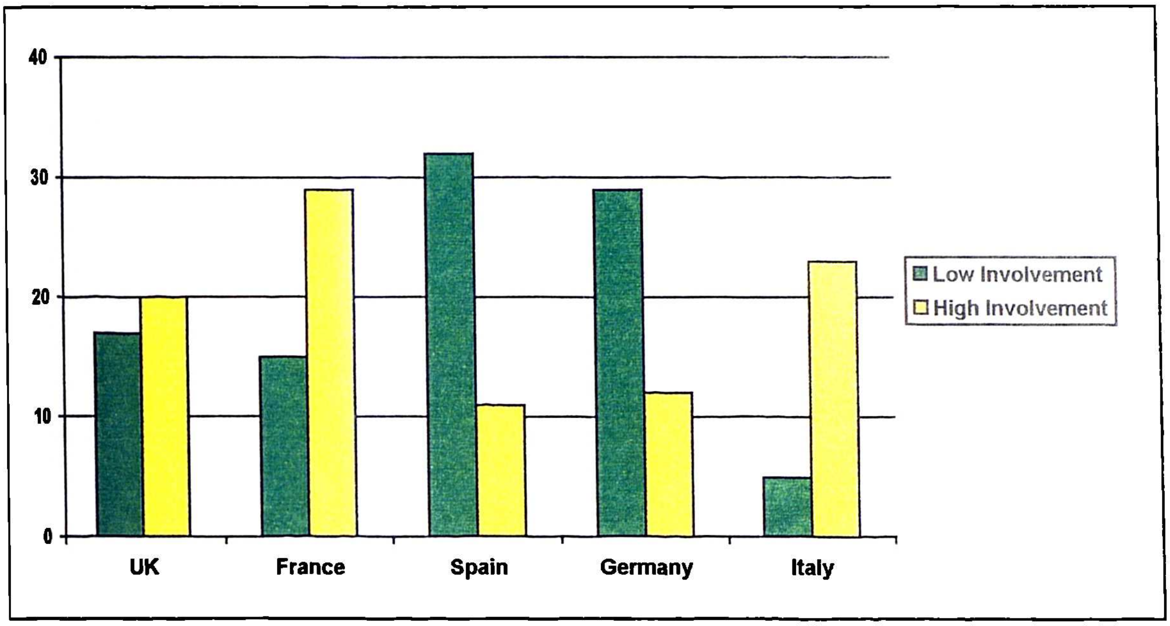
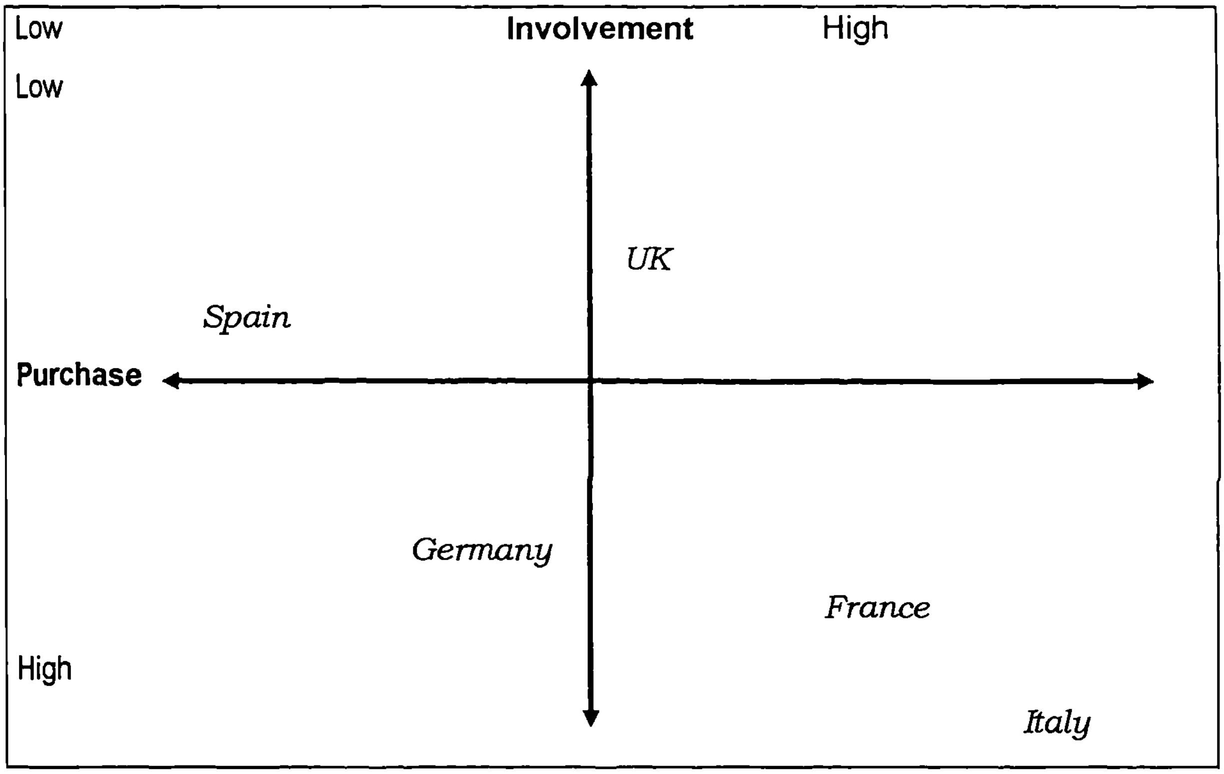


Table 9.2 Average Food Purchase By Average Factor Involvement Score

Total Percent	Above Average Involvement	Below Average Involvement
Below Average Purchase	19.1%	26.1%
Above Average Purchase	30.6%	24.3%

Figure 9.3 Relative European Food Purchase and Involvement

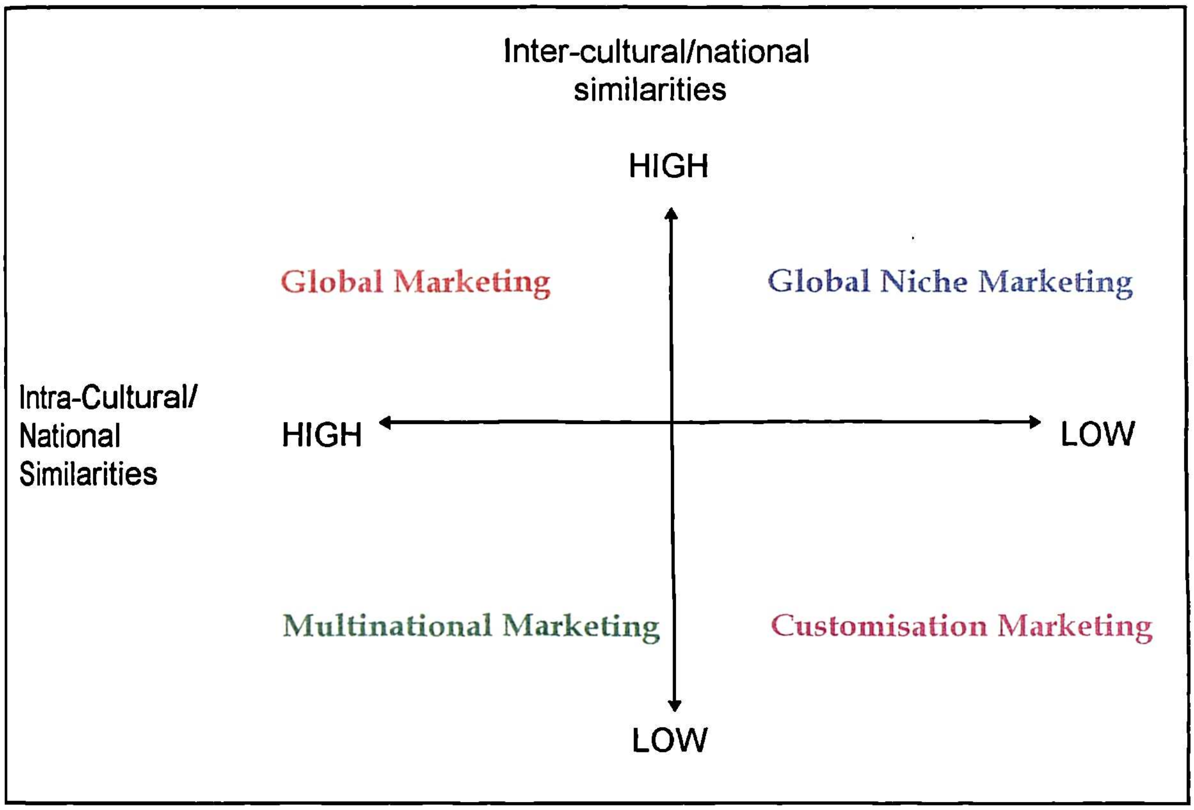


9.3 A Framework for Identifying Cross-Cultural Marketing Strategies

In this section, a framework is developed that facilitates the identification of the most appropriate cross-cultural marketing strategy (Figure 9.4). It is based on the synthesis of empirical results, reported in Chapters 7 and 8, and the concept of *culture-specific global orientation*. The framework for identifying cross-cultural marketing strategy, labelled the CroCMaS framework, is based on the application of intra- and inter-cultural similarities or differences in involvement to marketing strategy. Using the concept of involvement, the relevance of products to consumer needs, values and interests in different national markets is determined. This information provides insight into the buying behaviours of different groups of people which contributes to the identification of products or services which might possibly be marketed with similar or standardised efforts.

For example, if Italian consumers of red meat differ significantly in their involvement levels (high within-country variance), but the female educated professionals have comparable involvement levels with other 'same- segment' Europeans, then a possible strategy would be Global Niche Marketing. If this segment has particularly high normative levels of involvement a possible communications campaign would emphasise the pleasures of purchase and consumption to this group.

Figure 9.4 The CroCMaS Framework



9.4 An Application of the CroCMaS Framework

Utilising involvement variance as an indicator of consumer homogeneity, the CroCMaS framework may be applied for strategic integration. Specifically, the variances of intra- and inter-country involvement scores, by food as a whole, by product, and by a number of demographic breakdowns have been investigated. The variance of each country's involvement score was computed as a base indicator to identify the national homogeneity of consumers. These are reported in Figure 9.5. The level of intra-country homogeneity can be compared to average levels of involvement, to discern what characteristics a particular segment possesses (Figure 9.6). For example, high consumer heterogeneity is manifest in Italy. Involvement levels in food are also high on average in this country. Inter-country variance of each food category was computed as a second base indicator (Figure 9.7, Appendix 9.3). Fruit, for example, has a modest variation in involvement; consumers possess extremely similar attitudes towards fresh fruit. At the other extreme, consumers' attitudes towards frozen ready-made meals vary considerably.

The variance by gender, and also by income, within each country, by each product category, and across the total sample was computed and results compared to determine whether income groups and a particular gender exhibit more similar attitudes across Europe, or whether they are more similar within a country. For example, with yoghurt, all countries exhibit more similar intra-country attitudes than across Europe, apart from Italy, which has greater within-country variance. This suggests that attitudes towards yoghurt are particularly culture-specific. Subsequently, utilising the variances of gender and income, consumer segments can be targeted more precisely. Figure 9.8 identifies possible marketing strategies for particular consumer and product groups.

Figure 9.5 The Level of Homogeneity Across Europe

	Low Variance Consumers extremely similar				High Variance Consumers extremely dissimilar
Within Country Variance	Spain	France	Germany	UK	Italy

Figure 9.6

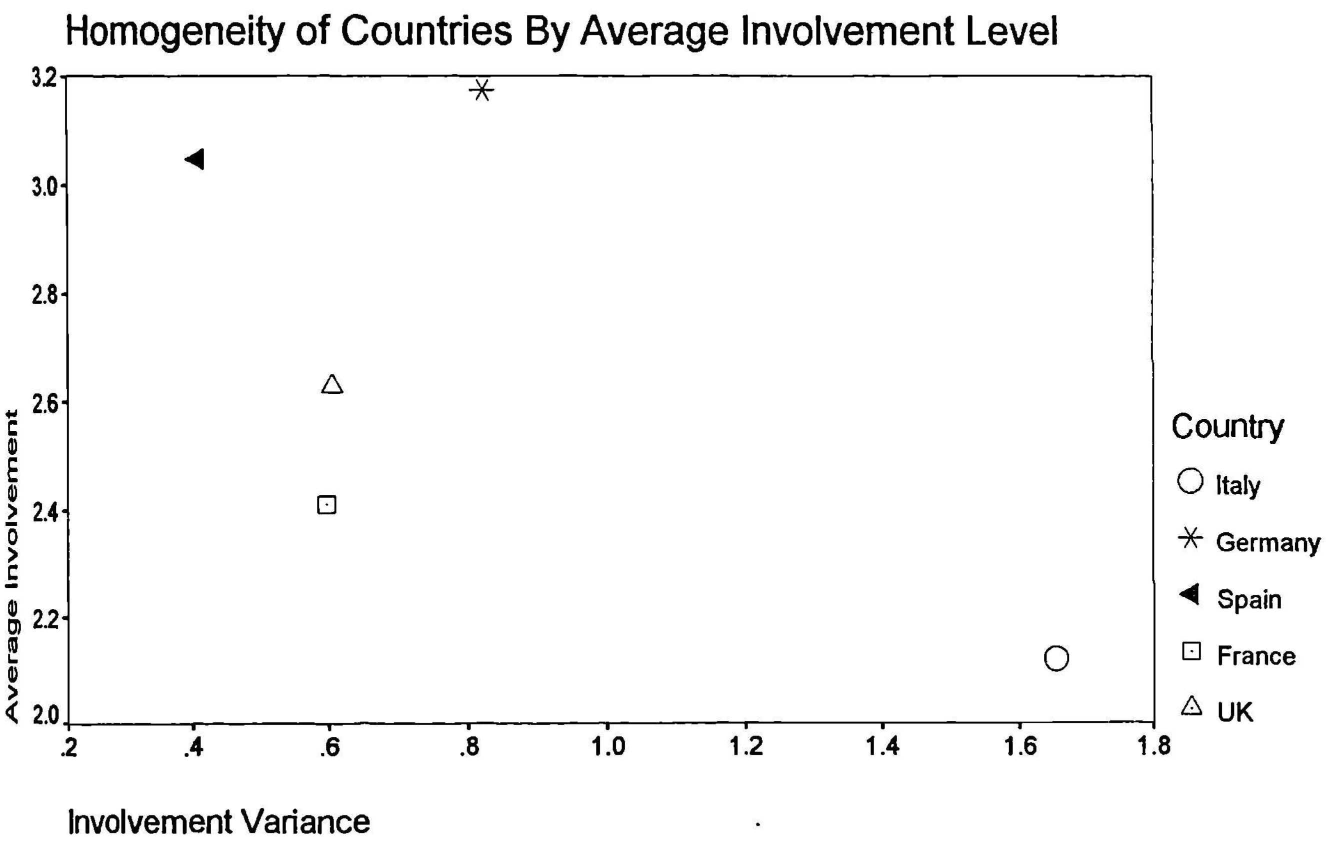
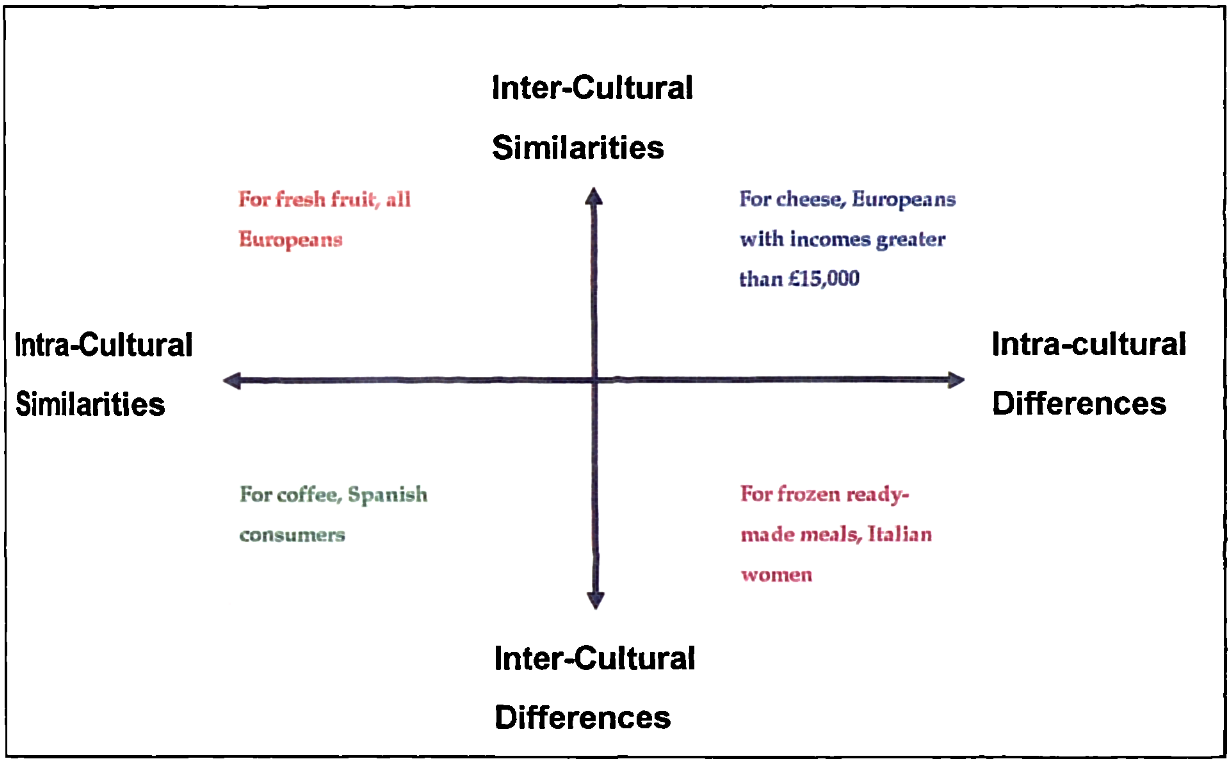


Figure 9.7 The Level of Homogeneity Across Food Categories

	Low Variation Consumers extremely similar							High Variation Consumers extremely dissimilar
Across Country Variance	Fruit	Cheese	Vegetables	Yoghurt	Red meat	Poultry	Ground coffee	Frozen ready-made meals

Figure 9.8 Applying the CroCMaS Framework



Italian consumers vary widely in their involvement with frozen ready-made meals, and cognitions towards frozen ready-made meals also vary widely across Europe. Italian women, however, possess relatively similar levels of involvement in this product, and also exhibit comparably high involvement. Customising the marketing strategy to this segment would be appropriate to maximise sales. Rational appeals in communication strategies (Crocker et al, 1983) and quality and service (Zaichkowsky and Sood, 1989) should be emphasised to this highly involved segment. Spanish consumers exhibit greater within-country similarities than across-country with involvement levels in coffee, and, therefore, a multinational strategy could be selected. Spain exhibits particularly low situational involvement in coffee (refer to Appendix 7.6), and, therefore, brand commitment may be less. Emotional communication appeals to create brand images, low prices and convenience should be emphasised.

For involvement in cheese, there are greater similarities across-countries than within. Intra-cultural differences, however, are significant. Consumers earning £15,000 per annum or more exhibit more similar attitudes across Europe than they do to their country of origin, and tend to be less involved. A global niche strategy is appropriate in this scenario. Finally, fresh fruit is proposed as a likely target for global strategies, i.e. in terms of communications and merchandising for retailers, as attitudes are similar both within and across-countries.

9.5 Conclusion

This chapter uses information on European consumer perceptions, detailed in Chapters 6 to 8, to suggest appropriate marketing applications. Specifically, a framework has been developed and applied for the purposes of marketing decision-making, and to aid in the formulation of international retail strategies. The concept underlying the framework, is that consumers with similar involvement levels should exhibit similar motivational behaviours towards a product. For example, they should seek out information equally, perceive differences between brands and have favourite brands (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Standardised marketing strategies may be appropriate, therefore, where little variation is evident in involvement levels across countries. Differences in involvement across countries, however, infers that customised strategies may be more pertinent. Assessing the level of consumer homogeneity, by comparing intra and inter-country variances in involvement by demographic variables, allows more precise market segments to be created. The CroCMaS framework, therefore, suggests four alternative marketing strategies to address the level of intra and inter-national similarity:

- global marketing;
- global niche marketing;
- multinational marketing; and,
- customisation marketing.

The framework has been applied to the results discussed in Chapter 7, and potential market segments and products have been identified that may be marketed using each of the previously mentioned strategies. These segments and products were then related to the level of involvement expressed by consumers on average. For low involved consumers, therefore, brand image may be of importance. For highly involved consumers, a more appropriate strategy might be to emphasise product attribute differentiation and premium pricing. The framework, therefore, is able to identify those consumers that view products in a similar way, and also can suggest appropriate cross-cultural marketing strategies to target these consumers.

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CHAPTER 10

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

10.0 Introduction

The thesis has investigated the existence of cross-cultural similarities or differences in consumer involvement with food in five EU countries. Through a consumer survey and an illustrative observation study in the UK, France, Germany, Spain, and Italy, disparities in consumer behaviour have been identified for application to international decision-making and retail store operations. The primary findings of the research have been detailed in the previous four chapters. The current chapter summarises these findings, posits managerial applications, and concludes the study. In addition, limitations of the research project and details of further research needed are outlined.

10.1 Summary of Findings

Background to the Research

The food retail industry exhibits a number of convergent trends across the EU (Chapter 2):

1. there is increasing concentration of retail players;
2. there is increasing concentration of fewer but larger stores;
3. there is increasing internationalisation of companies; and,
4. there is increasing diversification of formats and operations.

Indeed, it can be argued that there is a complementary trend of converging consumer lifestyles and behaviour. The state of convergence, however, is disparate across countries. It is argued that it is unlikely that these trends will ever totally converge into a completely homogeneous EU. The extent to which consumers are converging needs to be addressed in the light of retailer activities. Are consumer trends converging sufficiently to establish standardised marketing strategies or are the consumer markets disparate?

Food retailing may be subject to the influence of consumer culture to a greater extent than other forms of retailing. Cultural and cross-national consumer similarities and differences, therefore, are of key importance to investigate in the environment of food retail internationalisation. *Specifically, it is at the* retailer/consumer interface that the level of cross-national convergence of both purchase behaviour and store operation come into play.

To address this issue, one mediating variable of behavioural influences was selected - involvement - as crucial in the consumer choice process. Specifically, involvement is important to study cross-nationally to identify whether or not consumers differ in their purchase behaviour. A review of the literature failed to identify any discussion of the variability in levels of involvement across countries for food. Studies have, however, shown that for other products and services, involvement has a significant impact on purchase behaviour. Given the lack of information, and the potential variability in impact, it is important to identify consumer involvement levels across countries. Consequently, the information could be used as a discriminating element in the development of international marketing programmes.

From the issues outlined above, the following key hypotheses were addressed with a five-country consumer survey and a secondary, illustrative store observation study:

- Within European culture, food purchasing behaviour does not differ significantly across frontiers, and
- Culture is not a significant consideration for food retailers' international expansion.

Summary of Results

Before involvement levels could be investigated, a measurement instrument of involvement with food needed to be created. The first significant result, therefore, was the creation of a valid, reliable and cross-nationally equivalent measurement of involvement in food. The construct comprises of four dimensions, which have been validated across the five EU countries investigated, namely:

- risk involvement
- normative involvement
- enduring involvement
- situational involvement

Scale development and validation resulted in a operational definition of involvement:

> *Involvement can be defined as the extent to which an individual is characterised by an incremental cognitive process which connects the individual to a product. The individual may progress through a number of mental states: the assessment of importance / probability of product risk (risk involvement);* the relevance of a product *to the individuals' wants, needs and emotions (normative involvement); a general interest within the product category (enduring involvement); and, a specific interest between products (situational involvement). It is hypothesised that these states are linked sequentially, in that risk and normative involvement are antecedents to enduring and situational involvement. Moreover, each state may influence a behavioural response in isolation.*

The two key hypotheses detailed above were broken down into 7 sub-hypotheses. On analysis of the consumer survey the second significant outcome of the research was the negation of 6 of the 7 hypotheses with significant findings to at least the 0.05 level (Table 10.1).

Table 10.1 Testing the Null Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis	Decision	State of Nature
1. One culture or sub-culture does not impose different involvement levels on individuals.	Rejected.	Culture does impose different involvement levels on individuals.
2. The level of involvement with a specific food product does not vary according to the culture or sub-culture.	Rejected.	Level of involvement differs significantly by all cultural variables except income.
3. Involvement levels do not influence food consumption.	Rejected.	Involvement does influence food purchase.
4. Involvement levels do not influence food purchasing behaviour.	Rejected.	Involvement does influence food shopping frequency.
5. Culture does not influence food consumption.	Rejected.	Culture does influence food purchase.
6. Culture does not influence food purchasing behaviour.	Rejected.	Culture does influence shopping frequency.
7. Cultural consumer differences are not reflected by European food retailers.	Inconclusive - further research required.	Do not reject null hypothesis.

Although the structure of the involvement construct was identified as equivalent, thus enabling comparable results, the levels of involvement differed significantly by country and other cultural variables. Consumers exhibited both different levels of 'involvement with food' as a whole, and perceived each of the four dimensions of involvement differently. The disparities identify that standardisation strategies may not be appropriate for food products as each dimension of involvement can influence a variety of behaviours differently. Thus, a consumer segment exhibiting high risk involvement would suggest a communications strategy emphasising security and quality. Whereas, high normative involvement levels suggest hedonic and social status messages.

Comparing *the store observation findings to the consumer results, disparities are* also evident. Although the observation study acts as an illustration of retailer activity only, it is apparent that stores are not optimally laid-out to maximise sales. Specifically, rankings of involvement and purchase by food product are substantially different to shelf space rankings, so that the product with the maximum shelf space is not necessarily the one purchased most often, or the one consumers are most involved in the choice process. Purchase and involvement rankings, however, are very similar.

The penultimate findings identified the significant structural relationships between one antecedent (economic status) and two consequences (purchase and shopping frequency) of consumer involvement. Thus, the construct of involvement has been applied into the wider environment of purchase behaviour. Statistically significant results suggest that involvement does influence purchase and shopping frequency. In addition, the strengths of the relationships differ by country. Culture does, therefore, impose different involvement levels on individuals. Thus, involvement is a pertinent and valuable moderator of behaviour for marketing management to manipulate when developing abroad, and particularly when retailers are adapting their store operations to local demand.

The final research output is the development and application of a framework for identifying appropriate cross-cultural marketing strategies. It has been developed from the consumer information distilled from previous results chapters and applied for the purposes of marketing decision-making. The concept underlying the framework is that consumers with similar involvement levels should exhibit similar motivational behaviours towards a product. The framework is able to identify those consumers that view products in a similar way, and, therefore, can suggest appropriate cross-cultural marketing strategies to target these consumers.

10.2 Managerial Applications and Implications

The framework developed in Chapter 9 syntheses the results of the research study and posits a significant managerial application of the findings. Namely, through the identification of involvement levels, the framework provides an aid to structure international decision-making. In addition, the recognition of consumer differences in the supposedly homogeneous region of the EU serves as a warning for the blanket globalisation of food retailers. If there are significant differences in purchase behaviour in this region, the operation of food retail activities needs to be carefully considered in culturally-diverse regions.

The results of the literature review, consumer survey and store observation would suggest that although retailers have implemented limited adaptation to local markets they may, indeed, benefit from identifying similarities and differences in consumer behaviour to target market, enhance customer satisfaction and maximise sales. The trend towards internationalisation might appear initially to be at odds with a more focused, localised approach to retailing.

Adjusting the marketing mix to suit the individual needs of each locality would appear to contradict the unity of branding and image being sought by retailers at the corporate level. An additional problem comes in reconciling the centralised control of sourcing and product range decisions necessary to gain scale benefits with suppliers, with adjustments at lower levels to account or varying demand patterns. Also, because of the central buying policies and central warehousing of major multiples, it is difficult to adapt elements of the store mix to a particular region/country. It can be argued, however, that the fine-tuning of retail strategies at the local level is not only consistent with the push to internationalisation, but can be viewed as a crucial element in cross-border movements. Localised approaches provide considerable benefits to cross-border movements:

- A detailed understanding and addressing of consumer needs brings retailers closer to the customer, allowing specific initiatives to win customer loyalty;
- Matching store ranges and merchandising plans to customer demand at the micro-level ensures efficient stocking and effective marketing; and,
- Instilling an awareness of business objectives at the lowest level (i.e. store management) can increase accountability and efficiency (Humphries and Samways, 1993).

In this way, the localised approach can increase the effectiveness of the sales drive and improve the cost efficiency of the overall operation. Localised approaches, therefore, enhance the abilities of retailers to identify and serve the consumers best suited to their particular marketing proposition. This is illustrated in Figure 10.2.

Figure 10.2 The Local Approach to Retailing

Understanding Variations in Local Demand

- market research
- EPOS data
- payment cards

↓

Adapting the Marketing Mix

- product range
- pricing strategies
- merchandising
- consumer promotions

↓

Improve Sales

- effective marketing
- relationship with customer

Reduce Costs

- efficient stock control
- local accountability and awareness of business concepts

Source: The Corporate Intelligence Group, 1991

10.3 Limitations

Methodological and theoretical limitations have been addressed throughout the main body of the thesis. Three key issues, however, are pertinent for further consideration, namely; specification error, directions of causality, and external validity.

Specification Error

Consumer behaviour encompasses an extensive sphere of activity. To identify cultural similarities or differences in the consumer, a particular model/theory needed to be selected for operationalisation. Involvement was identified as appropriate in terms of consumer behaviour at the point-of-sale for application to cross-cultural retail marketing. Involvement, however, is only one element of the complex activities of consumer behaviour. The lack of application of involvement to the wider environment of consumer behaviour is recognised as a limitation to the investigation. The research consciously limited investigation to the consumer choice process, as most applicable for the retail marketer. Although the choice process was considered as a whole, only one aspect of the process could be practically selected for further investigation through primary research. The variable selected is particularly pertinent for marketing manipulation and is widely considered as an important aspect of behaviour.

Directions of Causality

A model was developed that follows Fishbein's classical model of consumer behaviour, and posits the causal relationship of attitude (involvement) to behaviour (e.g. purchase). It may be argued, however, that behaviour influences attitude, and that research does not address this circular debate. This argument is supported by the lack of evidence for attitude as a predictor of behaviour. Although this debate is recognised as unsolvable and thus a limitation to the research, the issue has been addressed.

Firstly, both past consumption and intention to purchase have been considered in the theoretical model (see Chapter 4), which thus identifies both past and future behaviour as significant variables in the consumer choice process. Secondly, the structural links have been tested using structural equation modeling to determine whether either 'purchase influencing involvement' or 'involvement influencing purchase' is a good fit to the data. The results of purchase to involvement were unsatisfactory according to the statistical criteria. Finally, involvement is not a 'true' attitude, it is motivational force that acts as a mediating variable to the influences of behaviour. It is of course recognised that past purchase and consumption may increase or decrease involvement. Level of involvement, however, is more likely to be influenced by other variables, including culture, demographics, lifestyle and marketing strategy. In addition, involvement does influence behaviour significantly.

Assessment of Validity

Four types of validity are pertinent to be reviewed in the context of drawing conclusions from the results presented in this study:

- **Statistical conclusion validity** refers to whether or not statistical inference of covariance between variables is justified;
- **Internal validity** addresses whether or not an observed covariation should be considered a causal relationship;
- **Construct validity** considers whether or not the operational variables used to observe covariation can be interpreted in terms of theoretical constructs; and,
- **External validity** examines whether or not an observed causal relationship should be generalised to and across different measures, persons, settings and times (Calder et al, 1982, p.240).

Results presented are both statistically and practically significant, in terms of findings with at least a 95 per cent confidence level with large enough effect sizes for practical use. Statistical conclusion validity is thus deemed satisfactory. Internal validity has been addressed by testing whether the antecedents and consequences of the construct under study - involvement - have a causal relationship. Construct validity has been assured through adequate scale development and validation.

It may be argued, however, that external validity has not been addressed. The extent that the findings can be generalised to and across different populations, measurements and time is questionable. The consumer survey utilised one measurement scale of involvement, implemented on selected shoppers of specific supermarkets at a certain point in time, and addressed their interest in food only. This limitation is refuted by addressing three key points: replication, a heterogeneous sample and the need for external validity in the current research.

The measurement instrument of involvement utilised, in its developmental stage, an initial item pool of the scales of a variety of researchers in involvement. The replication of past work extends the construct into the assessment of food purchase across the EU. The sample that the consumer survey was implemented on was in fact extremely heterogeneous. Samples across five separate countries, of actual consumers, segmented by gender and age ensured a heterogeneous group. Assessment of the respondent profile found that the sample is representative of the general population in terms of income, stage in lifecycle, occupation and education. In addition, although only food was considered in this investigation, eight disparate food products were researched to ensure generalisability.

Although replication and a heterogeneous sample provide only limited external validity, it is pertinent to address whether external validity is actually needed in the current study. Calder et al (1991) have argued that research progress does not require external validity for any single research study. Additionally, Cook and Campbell (1979) posit that when a researcher's interest is mainly theoretical, the inference of external validity is of little concern:

> "The priority among validity varies with the kind of research being conducted. For persons interested in theory testing it is almost as important to show that the variables involved in the research are constructs A and B (construct validity) as it is to show that the relationship is causal and goes from one variable to another (internal validity). Few theories specify crucial target settings, populations, or times to or across which generalisation is desired. Consequently, external validity is often sacrificed for the greater statistical power that comes through having isolated settings, standardised procedures, and homogeneous respondent populations. For investigators with theoretical interests our estimate is that the types of validity, in order of importance, are probably internal, construct, statistical conclusion, and external validity." (Cook and Campbell, 1979, p.83)

Although the moderate external validity of the current study is recognised as a limitation to the research, it is argued that there is sufficient justification to deem the level satisfactory.

10.4 Further Research

The results from the observation study, detailed in the main body of the thesis, have been offered as exploratory, illustrative findings. The limited methodology of the observation design restricts the validity and generalisability of the results. The findings do, however, provide interesting insights, together with the consumer survey results, on the level of retailer adaptation to consumer behaviour. Thus, the (sub) hypothesis two is partially addressed: culture is not a significant consideration for food retailers' international expansion. To understand retailer practice, and, therefore, to aid international marketing strategy, further research is needed to test this hypothesis.

It would be particularly interesting and pertinent to investigate and experiment with store operations in the light of the consumer results. Each of the four dimensions of involvement are perceived differently by each country, and these dimensions are hypothesised as influencing behaviour differently. Two additional studies could be implemented, therefore, to develop these results further. Firstly, further research needs to be undertaken on additional consequences of involvement. For example, if a consumer exhibits particularly high levels of risk involvement, will the consumer be more brand loyal? Once links between the involvement dimensions and behaviour have been ascertained, the manipulation of involvement levels could be experimented with. For example, to increase product trial through situational involvement, how can retailers adapt the point of sale?

To increase the generalisability of the results for food retailing, other EU countries and indeed other economic regions could be investigated. To test the generalisability of the structural links between the antecedents and consequences of involvement, the measurement instrument could be extended to other products and services.

10.5 Conclusions

Consumer tastes and behaviour are incapable of standardisation by decree and are remarkably resilient to outside influences of almost every kind (The Corporate Intelligence Group, 1991). Broadly homogeneous consumer groups have, of course, emerged from a combination of increased travel, rising living standards and international media. Consumers who might share an 'international' aspect of their behaviour, however, typically retain most of their national (or regional) characteristics in others. The Italian businesswoman, for example, who has been on a day trip to Frankfurt for a marketing meeting (conducted perhaps in English) will still return home to a Roman (or Milanese or Florentine) meal.

With respect to the evaluation of the feasibility of standardising either product or promotional strategies, Jain (1989) specifies five factors that should be considered in the standardisation/localisation decision:

1. characteristics of the target market;
2. assessment of the firm's market position;
3. attributes of the product;
4. specific marketing environment concerns; and
5. organisational issues

Within this framework, the current study focuses primarily on factors 1 and 3 - characteristics of the target market in assessing the ways in which consumer food involvement and culture may factor into consumption decisions; and the food retailing environment. As purchase behaviour comes into practice at the point of sale, cross-national consumer similarities and differences are of key importance to discover in the environment of food retail internationalisation. The consumer trends identified from the research can aid decision-making in international retail development, and also help recognise competitive advantage through improved targeting of marketing and store operations.

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APPENDICES

Country	University	Address
England	De Montfort University	Department of Marketing Leicester Business School The Gateway Leicester, LE2 7EF
France	Ecole Superieure de Commerce de Rennes	Department of Sales and Marketing 2, rue Robert d'Arbrissel 35065 Rennes Cedex
German	Fachhochschule Rheinland-Pfalz Abteilung Worms	Fachbereich Betriebswirtschaft VI Studiengang Handel / Studiengang EBM Erenburgerstrasse 19 67549 Worms / RH

Please judge each of the following statements on a scale of 1 to 5. With 1 being strongly agree with the statement and 5 being strongly disagree with the statement.

Involvement Statements	Scale
I have a strong interest in cheese	
I attach great importance to cheese	
I have no need whatsoever for cheese	
I am not at all familiar with cheese	
Choosing between cheeses is a very important decision	
Buying cheese requires a lot of thought	
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of cheese	
Most brands of cheese are alike.	
I usually purchase the same brand of cheese	
If my prefered brand of cheese was not available in the store it makes little difference to me if I have to choose another brand	
Buying cheese helps me express my personality	
I can tell a lot about a person from the brand of cheese s/he buys	
I can tell a lot about a person by the cheese s/he chooses	
Cheese is not part of my self-image	
I believe that differing brands of cheese would give different amounts of pleasure	
All brands of cheese would not be equally enjoyable	
I enjoy buying cheese	
I do not find cheese pleasurable	
I feel at a bit of a loss in choosing cheese	
In purchasing cheese I am certain of my choice	
Choosing cheese is easy to go wrong	
When I buy cheese, it is not a big deal if I buy the wrong brand by mistake	
It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of cheese	
A poor choice of cheese would not be upsetting to me	

Index

De Montfort University   **Consumer questionnaire (A)**   Leicester Business School

Questionnaire number			
0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]
1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]
2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]
3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]
4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]
5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]
6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]
7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]
8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]
9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]

1 **Country and city of interview**

England[ ] London[ ] Leicester[ ] Manchester[ ]
France[ ] Paris[ ] Lyon[ ] Toulon[ ]
Spain[ ] Madrid[ ] Seville[ ] Barcelona[ ]
Germany[ ] Berlin[ ] Hamburg[ ] Munich[ ]
Italy[ ] Rome[ ] Milan[ ] Naples[ ]

2 **Questionnaire type:** A[✓] B[ ]

3 Male[ ] Female[ ]

4 **Your age group** 15-19[ ] 20-29[ ] 30-39[ ] 40-49[ ] 50-59[ ] 60+[ ]

5 **How often do you carry out your main food shopping?**
everyday[ ] twice a week[ ] once a week[ ] fortnightly[ ] monthly[ ]
other,[ ] please state

6 **How do you usually get to your main food shop?**
car[ ] bus[ ] bicycle[ ] walk[ ] other public transport[ ] other[ ]

7 **How long does it usually take you to travel to your main food shop?**
<10 mins[ ] 11-20 mins[ ] 21-30 mins[ ] 31-60 mins[ ] >60 mins[ ]

8 **Of the following products, on average how often do you buy them per week?**
(a) cheese 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]
(b) frozen ready-made meals 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]
(c) ground coffee (& beans) 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]
(d) yoghurt 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]

9 **In what type of shop do you most often buy the following products? Please *tick one* type of shop only.**
(a) cheese general food shop[ ] supermarket[ ] hypermarket[ ]
specialist shop (eg. butcher, baker)[ ] other,[ ] please state
(b) frozen ready-made meals general food shop[ ] supermarket[ ] hypermarket[ ]
specialist shop (eg. butcher, baker)[ ] other,[ ] please state
(c) ground coffee (& beans) general food shop[ ] supermarket[ ] hypermarket[ ]
specialist shop (eg. butcher, baker)[ ] other,[ ] please state
(d) yoghurt general food shop[ ] supermarket[ ] hypermarket[ ]
specialist shop (eg. butcher, baker)[ ] other,[ ] please state

10 **School leaving age and/or qualifications** <15[ ] 16[ ] 17[ ] 18[ ] 18+[ ]
degree or professional qualification[ ] trade or craft qualification[ ] other,[ ] please state

11 **Occupation:**
prof/snr mgt[ ] mngr/admin[ ] sales worker[ ] clerical worker[ ]
craftsworker[ ] machine op[ ] labourer[ ] service worker[ ] home person[ ]
retired[ ] unemployed[ ] military[ ] student[ ] other,[ ] please state

12 **Annual household income group:**
<£15,000[ ] £15,000-29,999[ ] £30,000-£44,999[ ] £45,000-£59,999[ ] >£60,000[ ]

13 **Are you:** single without children[ ] single with children at home[ ] married with children at home[ ]
married without children[ ] co-habiting with children at home[ ] co-habiting without children[ ]
widowed/divorced with children at home[ ] widowed/divorced without children[ ]

14 **Your ethnic group:**
white[ ] black-African[ ] black-Caribbean[ ] black - other[ ] Arab[ ] Indian[ ]
Pakistani[ ] Bangladeshi[ ] Chinese[ ] Slavic[ ] Turkish[ ] other,[ ] please state

Please judge each of these statements on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being strongly agree with the statement and 5 being strongly disagree

	1	2	3	4	5
I have a strong interest in cheese	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I attach great importance to cheese	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I enjoy buying cheese	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choosing between cheeses is a very important decision	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying cheese requires a lot of thought	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of cheese	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying cheese helps me express my personality	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I can tell a lot about a person from the brand of cheese s/he buys	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I believe that differing brands of cheese would give different amounts of pleasure	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
All brands of cheese would not be equally enjoyable	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
In purchasing cheese I am certain of my choice	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of cheese	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
I have a strong interest in frozen ready-made meals	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I attach great importance to frozen ready-made meals	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I enjoy buying frozen ready-made meals	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choosing between frozen ready-made meals is a very importat decision	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying frozen ready-made meals requires a lot of thought	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of frozen ready-made meal	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying frozen ready-made meals helps me express my personality	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I can tell a lot about a person from the brand of frozen ready-made meal s/he buys	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I believe that differing brands of frozen ready-made meals would give different amounts of pleasure	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
All brands of frozen ready-made meals would not be equally enjoyable	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
In purchasing frozen ready-made mals I am certain of my choice	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of frozen ready-made meals	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
I have a strong interest in ground coffee	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I attach great importance to ground coffee	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I enjoy buying ground coffee	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choosing between ground coffee is a very important decision	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying ground coffee requires a lot of thought	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of ground coffee	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying ground coffee helps me express my personality	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I can tell a lot about a person from the brand of ground coffee s/he buys	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I believe that differing brands of ground coffee would give different amounts of pleasure	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
All brands of ground coffee would not be equally enjoyable	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
In purchasing ground coffee I am certain of my choice	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of ground coffee	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
I have a strong interest in yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I attach great importance to yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I enjoy buying yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choosing between yoghurt is a very important decision	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying yoghurt requires a lot of thought	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying yoghurt helps me express my personality	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I can tell a lot about a person from the brand of yoghurt s/he buys	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I believe that differing brands of yoghurt would give different amounts of pleasure	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
All brands of yoghurt would not be equally enjoyable	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
In purchasing yoghurt I am certain of my choice	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

De Montfort University Questionnaire Consommateur(A) Leicester Business School

1 **Pays/ville de l'interview:**

Angleterre[ ] Londres[ ] Leicester[ ] Manchester[ ]

France[ ] Paris[ ] Lyon[ ] Toulon[ ]

Espagne[ ] Madrid[ ] Seville[ ] Barcelona[ ]

Allemagne[ ] Berlin[ ] Hambourg[ ] Munich[ ]

Italie[ ] Rome[ ] Milan[ ] Naples[ ]

No de questionnaire:

0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]
1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]
2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]
3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]
4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]
5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]
6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]
7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]
8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]
9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]

2 **Questionnaire type:** A[■] B[ ]

3 Homme[ ] Femme[ ]

4 **A quel groupe d'age** 15-19[ ] 20-29[ ] 30-39[ ] 40-49[ ] 50-59[ ] 60+[ ]

5 **A quel rythme effectuez-vous votre approvisionnement alimentaire**

Chaque jour[ ] fois par semaine[ ] une fois par semaine[ ] tous les quinze jours[ ] une fois par mois[ ] autre[ ]

6 **Comment vous rendez-vous a votre principal point d'approvisionnement alimentaire?**

en voiture[ ] en bus[ ] a bicyclette[ ] a pied[ ] autre transport public[ ] autre[ ]

7 **Combien de temps vous fault-il pour vous rendre a votre principal point d'approvisionnement alimentaire? (en minutes)**

<10 mins[ ] 11-20 mins[ ] 21-30 mins[ ] 31-60 mins[ ] >60 mins[ ]

8 **En quelle quantite achetez-vous chaque semaine chacun des produits suivants?**

(a) fromage	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]
(b) plats prepares surgeles	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]
(c) cafe moulu (ou en grains)	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]
(d) yaourt	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]

9 **Dans quel type de magasin achetez-vous le plus souvent les produits suivants? (N'indiquez qu'un type de magasin)**

(a) fromage d'alimentation generale[ ] supermarche[ ] hypermarche[ ]
magasins specialises (boucherie, boulangerie...)[ ] autre[ ]

(b) plats prepares surgeles d'alimentation generale[ ] supermarche[ ] hypermarche[ ]
magasins specialises (boucherie, boulangerie...)[ ] autre[ ]

(c) cafe moulu (ou en grains) d'alimentation generale[ ] supermarche[ ] hypermarche[ ]
magasins specialises (boucherie, boulangerie...)[ ] autre[ ]

(d) yaourt d'alimentation generale[ ] supermarche[ ] hypermarche[ ]
magasins specialises (boucherie, boulangerie...)[ ] autre[ ]

10 **A quel age quitte l'ecole/Qualif professionnelle** <15[ ] 16[ ] 17[ ] 18[ ] 18+[ ]

Diplome ou qualif. professionnelle[ ] CAP ou apprentissage[ ] autre[ ]

11 **Quelle profession exercez-vous?**

prof/cadre superieur[ ] cadre(manager/admin)[ ] commercial[ ] employe de bureau[ ]
artisan[ ] conducteur de engin[ ] ouvrier (manuel)[ ] empl de services[ ] femme/homme au foyer[ ]
retraite[ ] chomeur[ ] militaire[ ] etudiant[ ] autre[ ]

12 **Dans quelle tranche de revenus annuels vous situez-vous?**

<FR150 000[ ] FR150 000-299 999[ ] FR300 000-449 999[ ] FR450 000-599 999[ ] >FR600 000[ ]

13 **Etes-vous** celibaire sans enfant[ ] celibaire avec des enfants au foyer[ ] marie avec des enfants au foyer[ ]
marie sans enfant au foyer[ ] concubine avec des enfants au foyer[ ] concubine sans enfants au foyer[ ]
veuf/veuve/divorce avec des enfants au foyer[ ] veuve/divorce sans enfants au foyer[ ]

14 **Indiquez vos origines raciales:**

blanc[ ] noir-africain[ ] noir des Caraibes[ ] noir d'autre origins[ ] Arabe[ ] Indien[ ]
Pakistanais[ ] du Bangladesh[ ] Chinois[ ] Slave[ ] Turc[ ] autre[ ]

Notez chacunes des affirmations suivants de 1 a 5. La note 1 indiquant que vous etes tout a fait d'accord avec l'affirmation et la note 5 que vous n'etes pas du tout d'accord avec l'affirmation.

	1	2	3	4
Je m'interesse enormement au fromage	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
J'attache une grande importance au fromage	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Je prends plaisir a acheter du fromage	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choisir entre les differents fromages est une decision tres importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter du fromage exige beaucoup de reflexion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il est extrement important que je fasse bon choix de fromage	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter du fromage contribue a l'expression de ma personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
La marque de fromage qu'on achete m'en dit long sur la personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Differentes marques de fromage procurent differents degres de plaisir	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Les maques de fromage ne sant pas agreable les unes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quand j'achete un fromage je suis sur(e) de mon choix	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
C'est vraiment exasperant d'acheter un fromage qui ne convient pas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4
Je m'interesse enormement aux plats prepares surgeles	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
J'attache une grande importance aux plats prepares surgeles	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Je prends plaisir a acheter des plats prepares surgeles	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choisir entre les plats prepares surgeles est une decision tres importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter des plats prepares surgeles exige beaucoup de reflexion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il extremement important que je fasse le bon choix de plats prepares surgeles	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter des plats prepares surgeles contribue a l'expression de ma personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Je crois que differentes marques de plats prepares surgeles procurent	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
La marque de plats prepares surgeles qu'une personne achete m'en dit long sur sa personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Les maques de plats prepares surgeles ne sant pas agreable les unes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quand j'achete un plat prepare surgele je suis sur(e) de mon choix	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
C'est exasperant d'acheter un plat prepare surgele qui ne convient pas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4
Je m'interesse enormement au cafe moulu (ou en grains)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
J'attache une grand importance au cafe moulu	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Je prends plaisir a acheter du cafe moulu	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choisir entre les differents cafes moulus est une decision tres importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter du cafe moulu exige beaucoup de reflexion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il est extremement important que je fasse le bon choix de cafe moulu	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter du cafe moulu contribue a l'expression de ma personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
La marque de cafe moulu qu'on achete m'en dit long sur la personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Je crois que differentes marques de cafe moulu procurent different degres de plaisir	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Les maques de cafe moulu ne sant pas agreable les unes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quand j'achete un cafe moulu je suis sur(e) de mon choix	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
C'est vraiment exasperant d'acheter un cafe moulu qui ne convient pas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4
Je' m'interesse enormement au yaourt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
J'attache une grande importance au yaourt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Je prends plaisir a acheter du yaourt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choisir entre les differents yaourts est une decision tres importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter du yaourt exige beaucoup de reflexion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il est extremement important que je fasse le bon choix de yaourt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter du yaourt contribue a l'expression de ma personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
La marque de yaourt qu'une peronne achete m'en dit long sur sa personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Differentes marques de yaourt procurent differents degres de plaisir	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Les maques de yaourt ne sant pas agreable les unes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quand j'achete du yaourt je suis sur(e) de mon choix	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
C'est vraiment exasperant d'acheter un yaourt qui ne convient pas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

De Montfort University Questionnaire Consommateur (B) Leicester Business School

1 **Pays/ville de l'interview**

Angleterre[ ] Londres[ ] Leicester[ ] Manchester[ ]
France[ ] Paris[ ] Lyon[ ] Toulon[ ]
Espagne[ ] Madrid[ ] Seville[ ] Barcelona[ ]
Allemagne[ ] Berlin[ ] Hambourg[ ] Munich[ ]
Italie[ ] Rome[ ] Milan[ ] Naples[ ]

No de Questionnaire:

0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]
1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]	1[
2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]	2[
3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]	3 :
4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]	4
5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]	5]
6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]
7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]
8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]
9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]

2 **Questionnaire type:** A[ ] B[-]

3 Homme[ ] Femme[ ]

4 **A quel groupe d'age** 15-19[ ] 20-29[ ] 30-39[ ] 40-49[ ] 50-59[ ] 60+[ ]

5 **A quel rythme effectuez-vous votre approvisionnement alimentaire?**
Chaque jour[ ] fois par semane[ ] une fois par semaine[ ] tous les quinze jours[ ] une fois par mois[ ]
autre[ ]

6 **Comment vous rendez-vous a votre principal point d'approvisionnement alimentaire?**
en voiture[ ] en bus[ ] a bicyclette[ ] a pied[ ] Autre transport public[ ] autre[ ]

7 **Combien de temps vous faut-il pour vous rendre a votre principal point d'approvisonnement alimentaire? (en minutes)**
<10 mins[ ] 11-20 mins[ ] 21-30 mins[ ] 31-60 mins[ ] >60 mins[ ]

8 **En quelle quatite achetez-vous chaque semaine chacun des produits suivants?**

(a) viande rouge fraiche	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]
(b) volaille fraiche	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]
(c) legumes frais	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]
(d) fruits frais	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]

9 **Dans quel type de magasin achetez-vous le plus souvent les produits suivants? (n'indiquez qu'un type de magasin)**

(a) viande rouge fraiche alimentation generale[ ] supermarche[ ] hypermarche[ ]
magasins specialises(boucherie, boulangerie...)[ ] autres[ ]
(b) volaille fraiche d'alimentation generale[ ] supermarche[ ] hypermarche[ ]
magasins specialises(boucherie, boulangerie...)[ ] autres[ ]
(c) legumes frais d'alimentation generale[ ] supermarche[ ] hypermarche[ ]
magasins specialises(boucherie, boulangerie...)[ ] autres[ ]
(d) fruits frais d'alimentation generale[ ] supermarche[ ] hypermarche[ ]
magasins specialises(boucherie, boulangerie...)[ ] autres[ ]

10 **A quel age quitte l'ecole/Qualif professionnelle** <15[ ] 16[ ] 17[ ] 18[ ] 18+[ ]
diplome ou qualif. professionnelle[ ] CAP ou apprentissage[ ] autre[ ]

11 **Quelle profession exercex-vous?**
prof/cadre superieur[ ] cadre(manager/admin)[ ] commercial[ ] employe de bureau[ ]
artisan[ ] conducteur de engin[ ] ouvrier(manuel)[ ] empl de services[ ] au foyer[ ]
retraite[ ] chomeur[ ] militaire[ ] etudiant[ ] autre[ ]

12 **Dans quelle tranche de revenus annuels vous situez-vous?**
<FR150 000[ ] FR150 000-299 999[ ] FR300 000-449 999[ ] FR450 000-599 999[ ] >FR600 000[ ]

13 **Etez-vous** celibaire sans enfant[ ] celibaire avec des enfants au foyer[ ] maire avec des enfants au foyer[ ]
marie sans enfant au foyer[ ] concubine avec des enfants au foyer[ ] concubine sans enfants au foyer[ ]
veuf/veuve/divorce avec des enfants au foyer[ ] veuf/divorce sans enfants au foyer[ ]

14 **Indiquez vos origines raciales**
blanc[ ] noir-Africain[ ] noir-Caraibes[ ] noir d'autre origins[ ] Arabe[ ] Indien[
Pakistanais[ ] Bangladesh[ ] Chinois[ ] Slave[ ] Turc[ ] autre[ ]

Notez chacunes des affirmations suivants de 1 a 5
La note 1 indiquant que vous etes tout a fait d'accord
avec l'affirmation et la note 5 que vous n'etes pas du tout d'accord avec l'affirmation.

	1	2	3	4	5
Je m'interesse enormement a la viande rouge fraiche	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
J'attache une grand importance a la viande rouge fraiche	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Je prends plaisir a acheter de la viande rouge fraiche	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choisir entre les differents viandes rouges est une decision tres importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter de la viande rouge exige beaucoup de reflexion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il est extrement important que je fasse le bon choix de viande rouge fraiche	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter de la viande rouge fraiche contribue a l'expression de ma personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
La marque de viande rouge fraiche qu'on achete m'en dit long sur la personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Differents maques de viande rouge fraiche procurent differents degres de plaisir	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Les maques de viande rouge fraiche ne sant pas agreable les unes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quand j'achete de la viande rouge fraiche je suis sue(e) de mon choix	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
C'est exasperant d'acheter de la viande rouge fraiche qui ne convient pas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Je m'interesse enormement a la volaille fraiche	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
J'attache une grande importance a la volaille fraiche	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Je prends plaisir a acheter de la volaille fraiche	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choisir entre les differentes volailles fraiches est une decision tres importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter de la volailles fraiches exige beaucoup de reflexion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il est extremement important que je fasse le bon choix de volaille fraiche	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter du volaille fraiche contribue a l'expression de ma peronnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
La marque de volaille fraiche qu'on choisit m'en dit long sur la personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Differentes marques de volaille fraiche procurent differents degres de plaisir	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Les marques de volaille fraiche ne sant pas agreables les unes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quand j'achete de la volaille fraiche je suis sur(e) de mon choix	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
C'est exasperant d'acheter de la volaille fraiche qui ne convient pas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Je m'interesse enormement aux legumes frais	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
J'attache une grande importance aux legumes frais	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Je prends plaisir a acheter des legumes frais	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choisir entre les differents legumes frais est une decision tres importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter des legumes frais exige beaucoup de reflexion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il est extremement important que je fasse le bon choix de legumes frais	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter du legumes frais contribue a l'expression de ma personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
La marque de legumes frais qu'on choisit m'en dit long sur la personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Differentes marques de legumes frais procurent differents degres de plaisir	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Les maques de legumes frais ne sant pas ageable les unes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quand j'achete des legumes frais je suis sur(e) de mon choix	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
C'est exasperant d'acheter des legumes frais qui ne conviennent pas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Je m'interesse enormement aux fruits frais	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
J'attache une grande importance aux fruits frais	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Je prends plaisir a acheter des fruits frais	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choisir entre les differents fruits frais est une decision tres importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter des fruits frais exige beaucoup de reflxion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il est extremement important que je fasse le bon choix de fruits frais	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Acheter des fruits frais contribue a l'expression de ma personnnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
La marque de fruits frais qu'on choisit m'en dit long sur la personnalite	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Differentes marques de fruits frais procurent differents degres de plaisir	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Les marques de fruits frais ne sant pas agreable les unes	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quand j'achete des fruits frais je suis sur(e) de mon choix	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
C'est exasperant d@acheter des fruits frais qui ne conviennent pas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Questionnaire number

0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]
1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]
2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]
3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]
4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]
5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]
6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]
7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]
8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]
9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]

1 Country and city of interview

England[ ] London[ ] Leicester[ ] Manchester[ ]
France[ ] Paris[ ] Lyon[ ] Toulon[ ]
Spain[ ] Madrid[ ] Seville[ ] Barcelona[ ]
Germany[ ] Berlin[ ] Hamburg[ ] Munich[ ]
Italy[ ] Rome[ ] Milan[ ] Naples[ ]

2 Questionnaire type: A[ ] B[ ]

3 Masculino[ ] Femenino[ ]

4 Grupo de edad 15-19[ ] 20-29[ ] 30-39[ ] 40-49[ ] 50-59[ ] 60+[ ]

5 Con que frecuencia realiza la compra de comida?

cada dia[ ] dos veces a la semana[ ] una vez a la semana[ ] cada 15 dias[ ] cada mes[ ]
otro,[ ] por favor indique

6 Que medio de transporte utiliza a la hora de ir a comprar?

coche[ ] autobus[ ] bicicleta[ ] andando[ ] otra transporte publico[ ] otro[ ]

7 Cuanto tiempo suele tardar en llegar al establecimiento elegido?

<10 mins[ ] 11-20 mins[ ] 21-30 mins[ ] 31-60 mins[ ] >60 mins[ ]

8 De los siguientes productos, como media con que frequencia los compra?

(a) queso 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]
(b) comida precocinada congelada 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]
(c) cafe molido (o en grano) 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]
(d) yoghurt 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]

9 En que tipo de tienda suele comprar mas amenudo los siguientes productos? (Senale solamente un tipo de establecimiento)

(a) queso pequena tienda ultramarinos[ ] supermercado[ ] hipermercado[ ]
tiendas especializadas (ej: carniceria, panaderia)[ ] otra,[ ] por favor indique
(b) comida precocinada congelada general food shop[ ] supermarket[ ] hypermarket[ ]
tiendas especializadas (ej: carniceria, panaderia)[ ] otra,[ ] por favor indique
(c) cafe molido (o en grano) pequena tienda ultramarinos[ ] supermercado[ ] hipermercado[ ]
tiendas especializadas (ej: carniceria, panaderia)[ ] otra,[ ] por favor indique
(d) yoghurt pequena tienda ultramarinos[ ] supermercado[ ] hipermercado[ ]
tiendas especializadas (ej: carniceria, panaderia)[ ] otra,[ ] por favor indique

10 School leaving age and/or qualifications <15[ ] 16[ ] 17[ ] 18[ ] 18+[ ]

estudios universitarios[ ] estudios no universitarios[ ] otros,[ ] por favor indique

11 Por favor indiquez su ocupacion

prof/snr mgt[ ] mngr/admin[ ] sales worker[ ] clerical worker[ ]
craftsworker[ ] machine op[ ] labourer[ ] service worker[ ] home person[ ]
retired[ ] unemployed[ ] military[ ] student[ ] other,[ ] please state

12 Por favor, senale en que grupo se encuentra segun los ingresos anuales de la unidad familiar:

< 3m[ ] 3m - 6m[ ] 6m - 9m[ ] 9m - 12m[ ] mas de 12m[ ]

13 Es usted? soltero sin hijos[ ] soltero con hijos en casa[ ] casado con hijos en casa[ ]
casados sin hijos[ ] cohabitando con hijos en casa[ ] cohabitando sin hijos[ ]
viudo con hijos en casa[ ] viudo sin hijos[ ]

14 Por favor indique su etnia de origen:

blanco[ ] negro Africano[ ] nego Caribeno[ ] negro - otra[ ] Arabe[ ] Indio[ ]
Pakistani[ ] Bangladesi[ ] Chino[ ] Eslavo[ ] Turco[ ] otro[ ]

Por favor valore cada una de las siguientes affirmaciones en una escala de 1 a 5. Con un 1 esta totalemente deacuerdo con la afirmacion y con un 5 expresando fuerte desacuerdo.

	1	2	3	4	5
Tengo un fuerte interes por el queso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[
Otorgo gran importancia al queso	[	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	
Me gusta comprar queso	]	]	[ ]	[ ]	
Elegir entre quesos es una decision muy importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	
Comprar queso requiere mucho que pensar	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	
Es sumamente importante para mi eligir correctamente el tipo de queso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[
Comprar queso me ayuda a expresar mi personalidad	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[
Puedo decir muchas cosas de una persona segun la marca de queso que compra	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[
Creo que diferentes marcas de queso proporcionarian satisfacciones distintas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[
Todas las marcas de queso no son igualmente agradables	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Al comprar queso, estoy seguro de mi eleccion					
Es realmente molesto hacer una compra inapropiada de queso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
	]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Tengo un fuerte interes por las comidas precocinadas congelada	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Otorgo gran importancia a las comidas precocinadas congelades	]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Me gusta comprar comidas precocinadas congelades	[ ]	]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Elegir entre comidas precocinadas congeladas es una decision muy importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying frozen ready-made meals requires a lot of thought	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of frozen ready-made meal	]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying frozen ready-made meals helps me express my personality	]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I can tell a lot about a person from the brand of frozen ready-made meal s/he buys	]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I believe that differing brands of frozen ready-made meals would give different amounts of pleasure	[ ]	]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Todas las marcas de comideas precocinadas congeladas proporcionarian	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Al comprar comidas precocinadas congeladas, estoy segura de mi eleccion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es realmente molesto hacer una compra inapropiada de comidas precocinadas congeladas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Tengo un fuerte interes por el cafe molido (o en grano)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Otorgo gran importancia al cafe molido	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Me gusta comprar cafe molido	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Elegir entre cafe molido es una decision muy importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Comprar cafe molido requiere much que pensar	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es sumamente importante para mi elgir correctamente el tipe de cafe molido	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
COmprar cafe molido me ayuda a expresar mi personalidad	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Puerdo decir muchas cosas de una persona segun la marca de cafe molida que compra	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Creo que diferentes marcas de cafe molido prporcionarian satisfacciones distintas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Todas las marcas de cafe molido no son iqualmente agradables	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Al comprar cafe molido, estoy seguro de mi eleccion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es realmente molesto hacer una compra inapropiada de cafe molido	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Tengo un fuerte interes por el yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Otorgo gran importancia al yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Me gusta comprar yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Elegir entre yoghurt es una decision muy importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Comprar yoghurt requiere mucho que pensar	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es sumamente importante para mi elegir correctamente el tipo de yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Comprar yoghurt me ayuda a expresar mi personalidad	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Puedo decir muchas cosas de una persona segun la marca de yoghurt que compra	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Creo que diferentes marcas de yoghurt proporcionarian satisfacciones distintas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	
Todas las marcas de yoghurt no son igualmente agradables	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	
Al comprar yoghurt, estoy seguro de mi eleccion	]	[ ]	[ ]		
Es realmente molesto hacer una compra inapropriada de yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]
1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]
2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]
3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]
4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]
5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]
6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]
7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]
8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]
9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]

Questionnaire number

1 **Country and city of interview**

England[ ] London[ ] Leicester[ ] Manchester[ ]
France[ ] Paris[ ] Lyon[ ] Toulon[ ]
Spain[ ] Madrid[ ] Seville[ ] Barcelona[ ]
Germany[ ] Berlin[ ] Hamburg[ ] Munich[ ]
Italy[ ] Rome[ ] Milan[ ] Naples[ ]

2 **Questionnaire type:** A[ ] B[ ]

3 Masculino[ ] Femenino[ ]

4 **Grupo de edad** 15-19[ ] 20-29[ ] 30-39[ ] 40-49[ ] 50-59[ ] 60+[ ]

5 **Con que frequencia realiza la compra de comide?**

cada dia[ ] dos veces a la semana[ ] una vez a la semana[ ] cada 15 dias[ ] cada mes[ ]
otro,[ ] por favor indique

6 **Que medio de transporte utiliza a la hors de ir a comprar?**

coche[ ] autobus[ ] bicicleta[ ] andando[ ] otra transporte publico[ ] otro[ ]

7 **Cuanto tiempo suele tardar en lleger al establecimiento elegido?**

<10 mins[ ] 11-20 mins[ ] 21-30 mins[ ] 31-60 mins[ ] >60 mins[ ]

8 **De los siguientes productos, como media con fre frequencia los compra?**

(a) carne fresca roja 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]
(b) carne fresca de ave 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]
(c) verduras y hortalizas frescas 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]
(d) fruta fresca 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]

9 **En que tipo de tienda suele comprar mas amenudo los siguientes producto? (Senale solamente un tipo de establecimiento)**

(a) carne fresca roja pequena tienda ultramarinos[ ] supermercado[ ] hipermercado[ ]
tiendas especializadas (ej: carniceria, panaderia)[ ] otra,[ ] por favor indique
(b) carne fresca de ave pequena tienda ultramarinos[ ] supermercado[ ] hipermercado[ ]
tiendas especializadas (ej: carniceria, panaderia)[ ] otra,[ ] por favor indique
(c) verduras y hortalizas frescas pequena tienda ultramarinos[ ] supermercado[ ] hipermercado[ ]
tiendas especializadas (ej: carniceria, panaderia)[ ] otra,[ ] por favor indique
(d) fruta fresca pequena tienda ultramarinos[ ] supermercado[ ] hipermercado[ ]
tiendas especializadas (ej: carniceria, panaderia)[ ] otra,[ ] por favor indique

10 **School leaving age and/or qualifications** <15[ ] 16[ ] 17[ ] 18[ ] 18+[ ]

estudios universitarios[ ] estudios no universitarios[ ] otros,[ ] por favor indique

11 **Por favor indiquez su ocupacion**

prof/snr mgt[ ] mngr/admin[ ] sales worker[ ] clerical worker[ ]
craftsworker[ ] machine op[ ] labourer[ ] service worker[ ] home person[ ]
retired[ ] unemployed[ ] military[ ] student[ ] other,[ ] please state

12 **Por favor, senale en que grupo se encuentra segun los ingresos anuales de la unidad familiar:**

< 3m[ ] 3m - 6m[ ] 6m - 9m[ ] 9m - 12m[ ] mas de 12m[ ]

13 **Es usted?** soltero sin hijos[ ] soltero con hijos en casa[ ] casada con hijos en casa[ ]
casados sin hijos[ ] cohabitando con hijos en casa[ ] cohabitando sin hijos[ ]
viudo con hijos en casa[ ] viudo sin hijos[ ]

14 **Por favor indique su etnia de origen:**

blanco[ ] negro Africano[ ] negro Caribeno[ ] negro otra[ ] Arabe[ ] Indio[ ]
Pakistani[ ] Bangladesi[ ] Chino[ ] Eslavo[ ] Turco[ ] otro[ ]

Por favor valore cada una de las siguientes affirmaciones en una escala de 1 a 5. Con un 1 si esta totalemente deacuerdo con la afirmacion y con un 5 expresando fuerte desacuerdo.

	1	2	3	4	5
Tengo un fuerte interes por el queso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Otorgo gran importancia al queso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Me gusta comprar queso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Elegir entre quesos es una decision muy importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Comprar queso requiere mucho que pensar	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es sumamente importante para mi eligir correctamente el tipo de queso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Comprar queso me ayuda a expresar mi personalidad	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Puedo decir muchas cosas de una persona segun la marca de queso que compra	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Creo que diferentes marcas de queso proporcionarian satisfacciones distintas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Todas las marcas de queso no son igualmente agradables	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Al comprar queso, estoy seguro de mi eleccion					
Es realmente molesto hacer una compra inapropiada de queso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Tengo un fuerte interes por las comidas precocinadas congelada	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Otorgo gran importancia a las comidas precocinadas congelades	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Me gusta comprar comidas precocinadas congelades	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Elegir entre comidas precocinadas congeladas es una decision muy importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying frozen ready-made meals requires a lot of thought	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of frozen ready-made meal	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Buying frozen ready-made meals helps me express my personality	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I can tell a lot about a person from the brand of frozen ready-made meal s/he buys	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I believe that differing brands of frozen ready-made meals would give different amounts of pleasure	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Todas las marcas de comideas precocinadas congeladas proporcionarian	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Al comprar comidas precocinadas congeladas, estoy segura de mi eleccion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es realmente molesto hacer una compra inapropiada de comidas precocinadas congeladas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Tengo un fuerte interes por el cafe molido (o en grano)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Otorgo gran importancia al cafe molido	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Me gusta comprar cafe molido	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Elegir entre cafe molido es una decision muy importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Comprar cafe molido requiere much que pensar	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es sumamente importante para mi elgir correctamente el tipe de cafe molido	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
COmprar cafe molido me ayuda a expresar mi personalidad	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Puerdo decir muchas cosas de una persona segun la marca de cafe molida que compra	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Creo que diferentes marcas de cafe molido prporcionarian satisfacciones distintas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Todas las marcas de cafe molido no son iqualmente agradables	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Al comprar cafe molido, estoy seguro de mi eleccion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es realmente molesto hacer una compra inapropiada de cafe molido	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Tengo un fuerte interes por el yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Otorgo gran importancia al yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Me gusta comprar yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Elegir entre yoghurt es una decision muy importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Comprar yoghurt requiere mucho que pensar	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es sumamente importante para mi elegir correctamente el tipo de yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Comprar yoghurt me ayuda a expresar mi personalidad	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Puedo decir muchas cosas de una persona segun la marca de yoghurt que compra	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Creo que diferentes marcas de yoghurt proporcionarian satisfacciones distintas	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Todas las marcas de yoghurt no son igualmente agradables	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Al comprar yoghurt, estoy seguro de mi eleccion	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es realmente molesto hacer una compra inapropriada de yoghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

De Montfort University **Verbraucher Fragebogen (A)** Leicester Business School

1 **Country and city of interview**

England [ ]	London [ ]	Leicester [ ]	Manchester [ ]
France [ ]	Paris [ ]	Lyon [ ]	Toulon [ ]
Spain [ ]	Madrid [ ]	Seville [ ]	Barcelona [ ]
Germany [ ]	Berlin [ ]	Hamburg [ ]	Munich [ ]
Italy [ ]	Rome [ ]	Milan [ ]	Naples [ ]

Questionnaire number

0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]
1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]
2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]
3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]
4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]
5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]
6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]
7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]
8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]
9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]

2 **Questionnaire type:** A [■] B [ ]

3 Mannlich [ ] Weiblich [ ]

4 **Altersgruppe** 15-19 [ ] 20-29 [ ] 30-39 [ ] 40-49 [ ] 50-59 [ ] 60+ [ ]

5 **Wie oft machen Sie ihre Lebensmitteleinkaufe?**
taglich [ ] zweimal pro Woche [ ] einmal pro Woche [ ] alle zei Wochen [ ] monatlich [ ]
andere [ ]

6 **Wie gelangen Sie normalerweise zum Supermarkt?**
auto [ ] bus [ ] fahrrad [ ] zu fuB [ ] other public transport [ ] andere [ ]

7 **Wieviel Zeit benotigen Sie, um dorthin zu kommen (in minuten)**
<10 mins [ ] 11-20 mins [ ] 21-30 mins [ ] 31-60 mins [ ] >60 mins [ ]

8 **Wie oft kaufen Sie die folgenden Produkte im Durchschnitt ein?**

(a) kase	0 [ ]	1-3 [ ]	4-6 [ ]	7-9 [ ]	10+ [ ]
(b) tiefgefrorene fertiggerichte	0 [ ]	1-3 [ ]	4-6 [ ]	7-9 [ ]	10+ [ ]
(c) gemahlenen kaffee (kaffeebohnen)	0 [ ]	1-3 [ ]	4-6 [ ]	7-9 [ ]	10+ [ ]
(d) joghurt	0 [ ]	1-3 [ ]	4-6 [ ]	7-9 [ ]	10+ [ ]

9 **In welcher Art von Geschaft kaufen Sie am haufigsten die folgenden Produkte?**
(a) kase kleines Lebensmittelgeschaft [ ] supermarkt [ ] einkaufszentrum [ ]
fachgeschafte (zB. metzgerei, backerei) [ ] andere[ ]
(b) tiefgefrorene Fertiggerichte kleines Lebensmittelgeschaft [ ] supermarkt [ ] einkaufszentrum [ ]
fachgeschafte (zB. metzgerei, backerei) [ ] andere[ ]
(c) gemahlenen kaffe kleines Lebensmittelgeschaft [ ] supermarkt [ ] einkaufszentrum [ ]
fachgeschafte (zB. metzgerei, backerei)[ ] andere[ ]
(d) joghurt kleines Lebensmittelgeschaft [ ] supermarkt [ ] einkaufszentrum [ ]
fachgeschafte (zB. metzgerei, backerei) [ ] andere[ ]

10 **Schule verlassen haben und/oder qualifikationen**<15 [ ] 16 [ ] 17 [ ] 18 [ ] 18+ [ ]
degree or professional qualification [ ] trade or craft qualification [ ] other,[ ] please state

11 **Beruf:**
professional/snr mgt [ ] manager/admint [ ] sales worker [ ] clerical worker [ ]
handwerker [ ] maschinist [ ] arbeiter [ ] service worker [ ] hausemann/frau [ ]
pensionist [ ] arbeitslos [ ] militar [ ] student [ ] other,[ ] please state

12 **Einkommensgruppe:**
<DM29 000 [ ] DM29.000 - 49.999 [ ] DM50.000 - 69.999 [ ] DM70.000 - 99.999 [ ] >DM 100.000[ ]

13 **Familienstand**
single ohne kinder [ ] single mit kind/kindern [ ] verheiratet mit kind/kindern [ ]
verheiratet ohne kinder [ ]ehelose partnerschaft mit kind/kindern [ ] ehelose partnerschaft ohne kinder [ ]
witwe/r / geschieden mit kind/kindern [ ] witwe/r / geschieden ohne kinder [ ]

14 **Welcher ethnischen Gruppe gehoren Sie an?**
weiB [ ] schwarz-African [ ]schwarz-Caribbean [ ] schwarz - andere [ ] Arab [ ] Indian [ ]
Pakistani [ ] Bangladeshi [ ] Chinese [ ] Slawisch [ ] Turkicsh [ ] andere[ ]

Bitte beurteilen Sie jede der folgenden Aussagen anhand einer Skala von 1 bis 5 wobei 1 fur "stimme voll zu" und 5 fur "stimme uberhaupt nicht zu" steht.

	1	2	3	4	5
Ich esse gerne Kase	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Kase ist sehr wichtig fur mich	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Ich kaufe gerne Kase, ein	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choosing between cheeses is a very important decision	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Beim Kauf von Kase muB iche viele Faktoren in Betracht ziehen	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es ist auBerordentlich wichtig, daB ich beim Kauf von Kase die richtige Entscheidung treffe	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Durch den Kauf von Kase ich meine Personlichkeit ausdrucken	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Die Marke Kase, die er/sie kauft, sagt mir sehr viel uber die bettefende Person aus	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Ich glaube, daB mir verschiedene Marken von Kase einen unterschiedliche Grade an GenuB geben	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Nicht jede Marke an Kase ist gleichermaBen genieBbar	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Beim Kauf von Kase weiB ich genau was ich will	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es ist wirklich argerlich nicht den richtigen Kase einzukaufen	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Ich esse gerne tiefgefrorene Fertiggerichte	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Tiefgefrorene Fertiggerichte sind ist sehr wichtig fur mich	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Ich kaufe gerne tiefgefrorene Fertiggerichte, ein	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Choosing between frozen ready-made meals is a very important decision	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Beim Kauf von tiefgefrorenen Fertiggerichten muB ich viele Faktoren in Betracht ziehen	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of frozen ready-made meals	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Durch deb Kauf von tiefgefrorenen Fertiggerichten ich meine Personlichkeit ausdrucken	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I can tell a lot about a person from th brand of frozen ready made meal s/he buys	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Ich glaube, daB mir verschiedene Marken von tiefgefrorenen Fertiggerichten einen unterschiedliche Grade an GenuB geben	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Nicht jede Marke an tiefgefrorenen Fertiggerichten ist gleichermaBen genieBbar	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Beim Kauf von Tiefgefrorenen Fertiggerichten weiB ich genau was ich will	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es ist wirklich argerlich nicht die richtigen tiefgefrorenen Fertiggerichte einzukaufen	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Ich trinke gerne Kaffee (Bohnen-Kaffee)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Kaffee ist sehr wichtig fur mich	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Ich kaufe gerne Kaffee, ein	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Die Wahl zwischen unterschiedlichen Kaffee ist eine sehr wichtige Entscheidung fur mich	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Beim Kauf von Kaffee muB ich viele Faktoren in Betracht ziehen	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of ground coffee	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Durch den Kauf von Kaffee ich meine Personlichkeit ausdrucken	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Die Marke Kaffee, die er/sie kauft, sagt mir sehr viel uber die betreffende Person aus	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Ich glaube, daB mir verschiedene Marken von Kaffee einen unterschiedliche Grade an GenuB geben	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Nicht jede Marke an Kaffee ist gleicheremaBen genieBbar	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Beim Kauf von Kaffee weiB ich genau was ich will	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es ist wirchlich argerlich nicht den richtigen Kaffee einzukaufen	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Ich esse gerne Joghurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Joghurt ist sehr wichtig fur mich	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Ich kaufe gerne Joghurt, ein	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Die Wahl zwischen unterschiedlichen Joghurt ist eine sehr wichtige Entscheidung fur mich	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Beim Kauf von Joghurt muB ich viele Faktoren in Betracht ziehen	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of yogurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Durch den Kauf von Joghurt ich meine Personlichkeit ausdrucken	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Die Marke Joghurt, die er/sie kauft, sagt mir sehr viel uber die betreffende Person aus	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
I believe that differing brands of yogurt would give different amounts of pleasure	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Nicht jede Marke von joghurt ist gleicheremaBen genieBbar	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Beim Kauf von joghurt weiB ich genau was ich will	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Es ist wirchlich argerlich nicht den richtigen yoghurt einzukaufen	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

De Montfort University | Verbraucher Fragebogen (B) | Leicester Business School

1 Country and city of interview

England [ ]	London [ ]	Leicester [ ]	Manchester [ ]
France [ ]	Paris [ ]	Lyon [ ]	Toulon [ ]
Spain [ ]	Madrid [ ]	Seville [ ]	Barcelona [ ]
Germany [ ]	Berlin [ ]	Hamburg [ ]	Munich [ ]
Italy [ ]	Rome [ ]	Milan [ ]	Naples [ ]

Questionnaire number

0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]
1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]
2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]
3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]
4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]
5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]
6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]
7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]
8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]
9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]

2 Questionnaire type: A [ ] B [ ]

3 Mannlich [ ] Weiblich [ ]

4 Altersgruppe 15-19 [ ] 20-29 [ ] 30-39 [ ] 40-49 [ ] 50-59 [ ] 60+ [ ]

5 Wie oft machen Sie ihre Lebensmitteleinkaufe?
taglich [ ] zweimal pro Woche [ ] einmal pro Woche [ ] alle zei Wochen [ ] monatlich [ ]
andere [ ]

6 Wie gelangen Sie normalerweise zum Supermarkt?
auto [ ] bus [ ] fahrrad [ ] zu fuB [ ] other public transport [ ] andere [ ]

7 Wieviel Zeit benotigen Sie, um dorthin zu kommen (in minuten)
<10 mins [ ] 11-20 mins [ ] 21-30 mins [ ] 31-60 mins [ ] >60 mins [ ]

8 Wie oft kaufen Sie die folgenden Produkte im Durchschnitt ein?

(a) frisches fleisch	0 [ ]	1-3 [ ]	4-6 [ ]	7-9 [ ]	10+ [ ]
(b) frisches gefugel	0 [ ]	1-3 [ ]	4-6 [ ]	7-9 [ ]	10+ [ ]
(c) frisches gemuse	0 [ ]	1-3 [ ]	4-6 [ ]	7-9 [ ]	10+ [ ]
(d) frisches obst	0 [ ]	1-3 [ ]	4-6 [ ]	7-9 [ ]	10+ [ ]

9 In welcher Art von Geschaft kaufen Sie am haufigsten die folgenden Produkte?

(a) frisches fleisch kleines Lebensmittelgeschaft [ ] supermarkt [ ] einkaufszentrum [ ]
fachgeschafte (zB. metzgerei, backerei) [ ] andere [ ]

(b) frisches gefugel kleines Lebensmittelgeschaft [ ] supermarkt [ ] einkaufszentrum [ ]
fachgeschafte (zB. metzgerei, backerei) [ ] andere [ ]

(c) frisches gemuse kleines Lebensmittelgeschaft [ ] supermarkt [ ] einkaufszentrum [ ]
fachgeschafte (zB. metzgerei, backerei) [ ] andere [ ]

(d) frisches obst kleines Lebensmittelgeschaft [ ] supermarkt [ ] einkaufszentrum [ ]
fachgeschafte (zB. metzgerei, backerei) [ ] andere [ ]

10 Schule verlassen haben und/oder qualifikationen <15 [ ] 16 [ ] 17 [ ] 18 [ ] 18+ [ ]
degree or professional qualification [ ] trade or craft qualification [ ] other, [ ] please state

11 Beruf:
prof/snr mgt [ ] mngr/admin [ ] sales worker [ ] clerical worker [ ]
craftsworker [ ] machine op [ ] labourer [ ] service worker [ ] home person [ ]
pensionist [ ] arbeitslos [ ] militar [ ] student [ ] other, [ ] please state

12 Einkommensgruppe:
<DM29 000[ ] DM29.000 - 49.999[ ] DM50.000 - 69.999[ ] DM70.000 - 99.999[ ] >DM 100.000[ ]

13 Familienstand
single ohne kinder[ ] single mit kind/kindern[ ] verheiratet mit kind/kindern[ ]
verheiratet ohne kinder[ ] ehelose partnerschaft mit kind/kindern[ ] ehelose partnerschaft ohne kinder[ ]
witwe/r /geschieden mit kind/kindern[ ] witwe/r / geschieden ohne kinder[ ]

14 Welcher ethnischen Gruppe gehoren Sie an?
weiB[ ] schwarz-African[ ] schwarz-Caribbean[ ] schwarz - andere[ ] Arab[ ] Indian[ ]
Pakistani[ ] Bangladeshi[ ] Chinese[ ] Slawisch[ ] Turkicsh[ ] andere[ ]

OMRQ7GB)

Bitte beurteilen Sie jede der folgenden Aussagen anhand einer Skala von 1 bis 5 wobei 1 fur "stimme voll zu" und 5 fur "stimme uberhaupt nicht zu" steht.

	1	2	3	4	5
Ich esse gerne frisches Fleisch					
Frisches Fleisch ist sehr wichtig fur mich					
Ich kaufe gerne frisches Fleisch, ein					
Choosing between fresh red meat is a very important decision					
Beim Kauf von frischem Fleisch muB iche viele Faktoren in Betracht ziehen					
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of fresh red meat					
Durch den Kauf von frischem Fleisch ich meine Personlichkeit ausdrucken					
Die frisches Fleisch, die er/sie kauft, sagt mir sehr viel uber die bettefende Person aus					
Ich glaube, daB mir verschiedene Marken von frisches Fleisch einen unterschiedliche Grade an GenuB geben					
Nicht jede Marke an frischem Fleisch ist gleichermaBen genieBbar					
Beim Kauf von frischem Fleisch weiB ich genau was ich will					
Es ist wirklich argerlich nicht den richtigen frische Fleisch einzukaufen					

	1	2	3	4	5
Ich esse gerne frisches Geflugel					
Frisches Geglugel ist sehr wichtig fur mich					
Ich kaufe gerne frisches Geflugel, ein					
Choosing between fresh poultry is a very important decision					
Beim kaufe von frischem Geflugel muB ich viele Faktoren in Betracht ziehen					
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of fresh poultry					
Durch den Kauf von frischem Geflugel ich meine Personlichkeit ausdrucken					
Das frische Geflugel, das er/sie kauft, sagt mir sehr viel uber die betreffende Persons aus					
Ich glaube, daB mir verschiedene Marken von frischem Geflugel einen unterschiedliche Grade an GenuB geben					
Nicht jede Marke an frischem Geflugel ist gleichermaBen genieBbar					
Beim Kauf von frischem Geflugel weiB ich genau was ich will					
Es ist wirklich argerlich nicht die richtigen frische Geflufel einzukaufen					

	1	2	3	4	5
Ich esse gerne frisches Gemuse					
Frisches Gemuse ist sehr wichtig fur mich					
Ich kaufe gerne frisches Gemuse, ein					
Choosing between fresh vegetables is a very importan decision					
Beim Kauf von frischem Gemuse muB ich viele Faktoren in Betracht ziehen					
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of vegetables					
Durch den Kauf von frischem Gemuse ich meine Personlichkeit ausdrucken					
Das frische Gemuse, das er/sie kauft, sagt mir sehr viel uber die betreffende Person aus					
Ich glaube, daB mir verschiedene Marken von frischem Gemuse einen unterschiedliche Grade an GenuB geben					
Nicht jede Marke an frischem Gemuse ist gleicheremaBen genieBbar					
Beim Kauf von frischem Gemuse weiB ich genau was ich will					
Es ist wirchlich argerlich nicht das richtigen frische Gemuse einzukaufen					

	1	2	3	4	5
Ich esse gerne frisches Obst					
Frisches Obst ist sehr wichtig fur mich					
Ich kaufe gerne frisches Obst, ein					
Choosing between fresh fruit is a very important decision					
Beim Kauf von frischem Obst muB ich viele Faktoren in Betracht ziehen					
It is extremely important that I make the right choice of fresh fruit					
Durch den kaufe von frischem Obst ich meine Personlichkeit ausdrucken					
Das frische Obst, das er/sie kauft, sagt mir sehr viel uber die betreffende Person aus					
I believe that differing amounts of fresh fruit give different amounts of pleasure					
Nicht jede Marke an frischem Obst ist gleichermaBen genieBbar					
Beim Kauf von frischem Obst weiB ich genau was ich will					
Es ist wirklich argerlich nicht das richtige frische Obst einzukaufen					

1 Country and city of interview

England[ ]	London[ ]	Leicester[ ]	Manchester[ ]
France[ ]	Paris[ ]	Lyon[ ]	Toulon[ ]
Spain[ ]	Madrid[ ]	Seville[ ]	Barcelona[ ]
Germany[ ]	Berlin[ ]	Hamburg[ ]	Munich[ ]
Italia[ ]	Roma[ ]	Milano[ ]	Napoli[ ]

Questionnaire number

0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]
1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]
2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]
3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]
4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]
5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]
6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]
7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]
8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]
9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]

2 Tipo di quest: A[—] B[ ]

3 Masc[ ] Fem[ ]

4 Gruppo di eta 15-19[ ] 20-29[ ] 30-39[ ] 40-49[ ] 50-59[ ] 60+[ ]

5 Con quale assiduita' fa la spesa principale?

ogni giorno[ ] 2/settimana[ ] 1/settimana[ ] 2/mese[ ] 1/mese[ ] altro[ ]

6 Come si reca sul luogo abituale dove fa le sue provviste?

macchina[ ] autobus[ ] bicicletta[ ] a piedi[ ] altro trasporto[ ] altro[ ]

7 Quanto temp ci mette per recarvisi?

<10 mins[ ] 11-20 mins[ ] 21-30 mins[ ] 31-60 mins[ ] >60 mins[ ]

8 Quanti di questi prodotti lei compera in media per settimana

a) formaggio	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]
b) piatti preparati surgelati	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]
c) caffe macinato (o grani)	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]
(d) yogurt	0[ ]	1-3[ ]	4-6[ ]	7-9[ ]	10+[ ]

9 In quale tipo di negozio compra piu' spesso i seguenti prodotti?

(a) formaggio generi alimentari[ ] supermercato[ ] ipermercato[ ]
negozi specializzati(eg. macelleria, panetteria etc)[ ] altri[ ]

b) piatti preparati surgelati generi alimentari[ ] supermercato[ ] ipermercato[ ]
negozi specializzati(eg. macelleria, panetteria etc)[ ] altri[ ]

c) caffe' macinato (o grani) generi alimentari[ ] supermercato[ ] ipermercato[ ]
negozi specializzati(eg. macelleria, panetteria etc)[ ] altri[ ]

d) yogurt generi alimentari[ ] supermercato[ ] ipermercato[ ]
negozi specializzati(eg. macelleria, panetteria etc)[ ] altri[ ]

10 Termine degli studi/qualifiche professionali <15[ ] 16[ ] 17[ ] 18[ ] 18+[ ]
laurea/qualifica professionale[ ] certif/apprendistato professionale[ ] altro[ ]

11 Quale professione esercita?

prof/direttore[ ] dirigente/amministr[ ] settore vendite[ ] impiegato/a[ ]
artigiano/a[ ] operatore meccanico[ ] manovale[ ] servizi pubblici[ ] casalinga/o[ ]
pensionata/o[ ] disoccupata/o[ ] forze armate[ ] studente[ ] altro[ ]

12 Fascia reddito annuale totale

<39 mill.[ ] 39 mill. - 78 mill.[ ] 78 mill. - 117 mill.[ ] 117 mill. - 156 mill.[ ] >156 mill.[ ]

13 Lei e':

celibe senza figli[ ] celibe con figli a carico[ ] sposato/a con figli a carico[ ]
sposato/a senza figli[ ] convivente con figli a carico[ ] convivente senza figli[ ]
vedova/a con figli a carico[ ] vedovo/a senza figli[ ]

14 Origini etniche

bianco[ ] nero-Africana[ ] nero-Caraibi[ ] nera-altre origini[ ] Araba[ ] Indiana[ ]
Pakistana[ ] Bengalese[ ] Cinese[ ] Slava[ ] Turca[ ] altre[ ]

(OMR07IA)

Classifichi ciascuna delle seguenti affermazioni da 1 a 5.
Il voto 1 indica che e' fermamente d'accordo con l'affermazione e il 5 che non e' affato d'accordo.

	1	2	3	4	5
Il formaggio mi interessa enormemente	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Do' una grande importanza al formaggio	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Mi piace molto comprare il formaggio	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Scegliere tra i vari formaggi e' una decisione molto importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto di un formaggio richiede molto riflessione	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E'imporantissimo che io faccia la scelta giusta del formaggio	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto del formaggio contribuisce ad esprimere la mia personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il tipo di formaggio scelto da una persona mi rivela la sua personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Credo che marche diverse di un formaggio possano piacere in modo diverso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Le varie marche dello stesso formaggio non sono gradevoli allo stesso modo	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quando compero il formaggio sono sicuro/a della mia sceita	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' davvero esasperante comprare del formaggio che poi non e' adatto	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
I piatti surgelati preparati mi interessno enormemente	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Do' una grande importanza ai piatti preparati surgelati	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Mi piace comprare i piatti preparati surgelati	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Scegliere tra i vari piatti preparati surgelati e' una decisione molto importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acqusto di un piatto preparato surgelato richiede molta riflessione	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' importantissimo che io faccia la scelta giusta di un piatto preparato surgelato	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto di un piatto preparato surgelato aiuta ad esprimere la mia personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il tipo di piatto prep surg scelto da una persona mi rivela la sua personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Credo che march diverse di piatti prep surg possano piacere in modo diverso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Le varie marche dello stesso piatto prep surg non sono gradevoli allo stesso modo	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quando compero un piatto preparato surgelato sono sicuro/a della mia scelta	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' davvero esasperante comprare un piatto prep surg che poi non e' adatto	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Il caffe' macinato (o in grani) mi interessa enormemente	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Do' una grande importanza al caffe' macinato (o in grani)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Mi piace molto comprare il caffe' macinato (o in grani)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Scegliere tra i vari caffe' macinati (o in grani) e' una decisione molto importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto di un caffe' macinato (o in grani) richiede molta riflessione	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' importantissimo che oi faccia la scelta giusta del caffe' macinato/grani	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto del caffe' macinato/grani contribuisce ad esprimere la mia personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il tipo di caffe' macinato/grani scelto da una persona mi rivela la sua personalita	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Credo che marche diverse di caffe' macinato/grani possano piacere in modo diverso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Varie marche diverse di caffe' mac/grani non sono gradevoli allo stesso modo	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quando compero il caffe' macinato/grani sono sicuro/a della mia scelta	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' davvero esasperante comprare del caffe' macinato/grani che poi non e' adatto	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Lo yogurt mi interessa enormemente	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Do' una grande importanza allo yogurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Mi piace molto comprare lo yogurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Scegliere tra i vari uogurt e' una decisione molto importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto dello yogurt richiede molta riflessione	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' imporantissimo che io faccia la scelta giusta dello yogurt	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto dello yogurt contribuisce ad esprimere la mia personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il tipo di yogurt scelto da una pesona mi rivela la sua personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Credo che marche diverse di yogurt possano piacere in modo diverso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Le varie marche dello stesso yogurt non sono gradevoli allo stesso modo	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quando compero lo yogurt sono sicuro/a della mia scelta	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' davvero esasperante comprare dello yogurt che poi non e' adatto	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Questionnaire number

0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]	0[ ]
1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]	1[ ]
2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]	2[ ]
3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]	3[ ]
4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]	4[ ]
5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]	5[ ]
6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]	6[ ]
7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]	7[ ]
8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]	8[ ]
9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]	9[ ]

1 Country and city of interview

England[ ] London[ ] Leicester[ ] Manchester[ ]

France[ ] Paris[ ] Lyon[ ] Toulon[ ]

Spain[ ] Madrid[ ] Seville[ ] Barcelona[ ]

Germany[ ] Berlin[ ] Hamburg[ ] Munich[ ]

Italia[ ] Roma[ ] Milano[ ] Napoli[ ]

2 Tipo de quest: A[ ] B[—]

3 Masc[ ] Fem[ ]

4 Gruppo di eta' 15-19[ ] 20-29[ ] 30-39[ ] 40-49[ ] 50-59[ ] 60+[ ]

5 Con quale assiduita' fa la spesa principale?

ogni giorno[ ] 2/settimana[ ] 1/settimana[ ] 2/mese[ ] 1/mese[ ]

altro[ ]

6 Come si reca sul luogo abitual dove fa le sue provviste?

macchina[ ] autobus[ ] bicicletta[ ] a piedi[ ] other public transport[ ] other[ ]

7 Quanto tempo ci mette per recarvisi?

<10 mins[ ] 11-20 mins[ ] 21-30 mins[ ] 31-60 mins[ ] >60 mins[ ]

8 Quanti di questi prodotti lei compera in media per settima?

(a) carne fresca 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]

(b) pollame fresca 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]

(c) verdura fresca 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]

(d) frutta fresca 0[ ] 1-3[ ] 4-6[ ] 7-9[ ] 10+[ ]

9 In quale tipe di negozio compra piu' spesso i seguenti prodotti?

(a) carne fresca generi alimentari[ ] supermercato[ ] ipermercato[ ]
negozio specializzati (macelleria, panetteria etc)[ ] altri[ ]

(b) pollame fresca generi alimentari[ ] supermercato[ ] ipermercato[ ]
negozio specializzati (macelleria, panetteria etc)[ ] altri[ ]

(c) verdura fresca generi alimentari[ ] supermercato[ ] ipermercato[ ]
negozio specializzati (macelleria, panetteria etc)[ ] altri[ ]

(d) frutta fresca generi alimentari[ ] supermercato[ ] ipermercato[ ]
negozio specializzati (macelleria, panetteria etc)[ ] altri[ ]

10 Termine degli studi/qualifiche professionali <15[ ] 16[ ] 17[ ] 18[ ] 18+[ ]

laurea/qualifica professionale[ ] certif/apprendistato professionale[ ] altro[ ]

11 Quale professione esercita?

prof/direttore[ ] dirigente/amministr[ ] settore vendite[ ] impiegato/a[ ]

artigiano/a[ ] operatore meccanico[ ] manovale[ ] servizi pubblici[ ] casalinga/o[ ]

pensionato/a[ ] disoccupata/o[ ] forze armate[ ] studente[ ] altro[ ]

12 Fascia reddito annuale totale

<39 mill.[ ] 39 mill. - 78 mill.[ ] 78 mill. - 117 mill.[ ] 117 mill. - 156 mill.[ ] >156 mill.[ ]

13 Lei e' celibe senza figli[ ] celibe con figli a carico[ ] sposato/a con figli a carico[ ]

sposato/a senza figli[ ] convivente con figli a carico[ ] convivente senza figli[ ]

vedovo/a con figli a carico[ ] vedovo/a senza figli[ ]

14 Origini etniche

bianco[ ] nero-Africana[ ] nero-Caraibi[ ] nera-altre origini[ ] Araba[ ] Indiana[ ]

Pakistana[ ] Bengalese[ ] Cinese[ ] Slava[ ] Turca[ ] altre[ ]

(OMR07(I))

Classifichi ciascuna delle sequenti affermazioni da 1 a 5.
Il voto 1 indica che e' fermamente d'accordo con l'affermazione e il 5 che non e' affato d'accordo.

	1	2	3	4	5
La carne fresca mi interessa enormemente	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Do' una grand importanza alla care fresca	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Mi piace molto comprare la carne fresca	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Scegliere tra le varie carni fresche e' una decisione molto importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto della carne fresca richiede molta riflessione	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' importissimo che io faccia la scelta giusta di una carne fresca	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto della carne fresca contribuisce ad esprimere la mia personalita	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il tipo de carne fresca scelta da una persona mi rivela la sua personalita	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Credo che tipi diversi di carne fresca possano piacere in modo diverso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Tutti i tipi di carne fresca non sono gradevoli allo stesso modo	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quando compero la carne fresca sono sicuro/a della mia scelta	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' davvero esasperante comprare della carne fresca che poi non e' adatta	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
Il pollame fresco mi interessa enormemente	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Do' una grande importanza al pollame fresco	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Mi piace molto comprare il pollame fresco	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Scegliere tra i vari pollami freschi e' una decisione molto importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto di un pollame fresco richiede molta riflessione	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' importantissimo che io faccia la scelta giusta del pollame fresco	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto del pollame fresco contribuisce ad esprimere la mia personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il tipo di pollame fresco scelto da una persona mi rivela la sua personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Credo che tipi diversi di pollame fresco possano piacere in modo diverso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Tutti i tipi di pollame fresco non sono gradevoli allo stesse modo	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quando compero del pollame fresco sono sicuro/a della mia scelta	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' davvero esasperante comprare del pollame fresco che poi non e' adatto	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
La verdura fresca mi interessa enormemente	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Do' una grande importanza alla verdura fresca	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Mi piace molto comprare la verdura fresca	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Scelgiere tra le varie verdure fresche e' una decisione molto importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto della verdura fresca richiede molta riflessione	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' importantissimo che io faccia la scelta giusta della verdura fresca	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto della verdura fresca contribuisce as esprimere la mia personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il tipo di verdura fresca scelto da una persona mi rivela la sua personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Credo che tipi diversi di verdure fresche possano piacere in modo diverso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Tutti i tipi di verdura fresche non sono gradevoli allo stesso modo	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quando compero la verdura fresca sono sicuro/a della mia scelta	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' davvero esasperante comprare della verdurs fresca che poi non e' adatta	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

	1	2	3	4	5
La frutta fresca mi interessa enormemente	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Do' una grande importanza alla frutta fresca	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Mi piace molto comprare la frutta fresca	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Scegliere tra le varie frutta fresca e' una decisione molto importante	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto della frutta fresca richiede molta riflessione	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E'importantissimo che io faccia la scelta giusta della frutta fresca	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
L'acquisto della frutta fresca contribuisce ad esprimere la mia personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Il tipo di frutta fresca scelta da una persona mi rivela la sua personalita'	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Credo che tipi diverse di frutta fresca possano piacere in modo diverso	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Tutti i tipi di frutta fresca non sono gradevoli allo stesso modo	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Quando compero la frutta fresca non sono sicuro/a della mia scelta	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
E' davvero esasperante comprare della fruta fresca che poi non e'datto	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Country	City	Supermarket	Address
England	London	Sainsbury	
	Leicester	Sainsbury	Fosse Park
France	Paris	Continent	Avenue de la Division leClerc Villetaneuse, 93439
	Lyon	Continent	Lyon Est 236 Avenue Franklin Roosevelt Vaux-en-Velin
Germany	Former East Berlin	Kaiser's	Landsbergerallee 127 10369
	Former West Berlin	Kaiser's	
Spain	Seville	Continentes	Ctra. San Pablo KM535,6 41001
	Madrid	Hipercor	Pozuelo
Italy	Milan	Esselunga	Limito

Country	City	Supermarket	Address
England	Leicester	Asda	Fosse Park
		Sainsbury's	Fosse Park
France	Paris	Continente	Avenue de la Division leClerc Villetaneuse, 93439
	Lyon	Continente	236 Avenue Franklin Roosevelt Vaulx-en-Velin
	Toulon	Continente	Centre Commercial Toulon Ouest Ollioules
Spain	Seville	Continente	Crta. San Pablo KM, 535,6
		Hipercor	Ctra. Sevilla-Malaga KM. 4,900
		Pryca	Avda. de Andalucia S/N
Germany	Berlin	Kaiser's	Am Tierpark
		Bolle	Beruhard-Baistleinstrasse, 103667
		Aldi	Landsbergerallee 277, 13055
	Konstanz	Hertie	Hussen 23
		Edeka-Aktiv-Markt	Kanzleistr, 2
		Tengelmann	E. Munzgasse
Italy		None	

Store Name:		No. of checkouts:	
Address:			
Product	No. of Products/Brands	Sq Linear Meterage	No. of Shelves High
Chilled, packaged cheese			
Fresh counter cheese			
Fresh milk			
Frozen ready-made meals			
Ground coffee (& beans)			
Instant coffee			
Yoghurt			
Fresh, packaged, chilled red meat			
Fresh, packaged, chilled poultry			
Fresh fruit			
Fresh vegetables			
Red wine			
White wine			
Bottled mineral water			
Fresh, unpackaged, bakery bread			
Fresh, packaged bread			

- Draw a diagram of the store layout. Note down the position that the products are placed (e.g. back wall, by entrance, centre or end of aisle etc.).

Enduring Value: Interest/Knowledge/Familiarity	I have a strong interest in cheese I attach great importance to cheese Cheese interests me a lot Cheese is a product which leaves me totally indifferent I attach great importance to cheese I am not at all interested in cheese I am indifferent to cheese Cheese is important to me Cheese is of no concern to me Cheese is irrelevant Cheese means a lot to me Cheese matters to me Cheese is a product that I could talk about for a long time I have no need whatsoever for cheese I am not at all familiar with cheese I definitely have a 'wanting' for cheese I am ready to pay more for a cheese if I'm already familiar with it.
Situational Value / Brand Preference	Choosing between cheeses is a very important decision I choose my cheese very carefully Buying cheese requires a lot of thought I care a great deal which type/brand of cheese I buy The various types/brands of cheese are all very alike It is extremely important that I make the right choice of cheese I have a preference for one or more brands of cheese If evaluating brands of cheese, I would examine a long list of features Most brands of cheese are alike. I take care to buy good 'price/quality' cheeses. I need to choose from a wide range of cheeses Sometimes, I buy promotion products because most of the time the price is interesting or the product is new.
Brand Commitment	I usually purchase the same brand of cheese If I preferred a brand of cheese before actually buying it, I might easily change my intended choice if I received negative information If I received information that was contrary to my intended choice of cheese, I would - at all costs - keep my choice I prefer one particular brand of product. If my preferred brand of cheese was not available in the store it makes little difference to me if I have to choose another brand I'm quite faithful to certain cheeses (especially brand names) It is annoying when I do not find the cheese I'm used to buying in the supermarket I am loyal to a particular branded cheese

Normative Importance/Sign	Buying cheese helps me express my personality (product) Knowing whether or not someone buys cheese tells a lot about that person (product) I can tell a lot about a person from the brand of cheese s/he buys (brand) I can tell a lot about a person by the cheese s/he chooses The cheese I buy gives me a glimpse of the type of man/woman I am The cheese I buy tells a little about myself Cheese tells me something about a person The cheese that I buy does not reflect the kind of person that I am The cheese that I buy says something about me Cheese says nothing about me Cheese tells me about a person Others use my choice of cheese to judge me Cheese is not part of my self-image Cheese does not tell others about me Cheese does not portray an image of me to others My use of cheese allows others to see me as I would ideally like them to see me I rate cheese as being of the highest importance to me personally Because of what others think, I feel that cheese should be important to me When I invite friends, I want to be sure of the cheese that I buy I am ready to pay more for a cheese if it is of good quality
Hedonic Value	I give myself great pleasure by purchasing cheese (product) To buy cheese is like giving myself a present or treat (product) I believe that differing brands of red wine would give different amounts of pleasure (brand) All brands of cheese would not be equally enjoyable (brand) No matter what brand of cheese I buy, I get the same pleasure (brand) It gives me pleasure to purchase cheese Buying cheese is like buying a gift for myself Cheese is somewhat of a pleasure to me I enjoy buying cheese for myself Buying cheese feels like giving myself a gift I do not find cheese pleasurable Cheese is boring Cheese is unexciting Cheese is appealing Cheese is undesirable Cheese is fun

Risk Probability	Whenever I buy cheese I never really know whether it is the one that I should have bought When I face a shelf of cheese I always feel a bit at a loss to make my choice Choosing cheese is rather complicated When I purchase cheese I am never certain of my choice I never know if I am making the right purchase of cheese I feel at a bit of a loss in choosing cheese In purchasing cheese I am certain of my choice Choosing cheese is easy to go wrong Choosing cheese is not risky Cheese is easy to choose
Risk Importance	When I buy cheese, it is not a big deal if I buy the wrong brand by mistake (brand) It is very annoying to buy cheese that is not right (brand) A bad buy of cheese could bring me trouble (brand) When I choose cheese it is not a big deal if I make a mistake It is really annoying to purchase cheese that is not suitable If, after I bought cheese, my choice(s) prove to be poor, I would really be upset It is not a big deal is I make a mistake in choosing cheese It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of cheese A poor choice of cheese would not be upsetting to me I have a lot to lose if I choose the wrong brand of cheese It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of cheese A poor choice of cheese would not be upsetting I have little to lose by choosing cheese poorly In purchasing cheese, I am certain of my choice I never know if I am making the right purchase of cheese I do not like it when I buy a product and I am disappointed with the quality.
Utility	Using cheese is beneficial to me

(1.) I have a strong interest in ___________

(2.) I attach great importance to ___________

(3.) I enjoy buying ________________

(4.) Choosing between ____________ is a very important decision

(5.) It is extremely important that I make the right choice of _____________

(6.) Buying ___________ requires a lot of thought

(7.) I believe that differing brands/types of ________ would give different amounts of pleasure

(8.) All brands/types of _________ would not be equally enjoyable

(9.) Buying _____ helps me express my personality

(10.) I can tell a lot about a person by the brand/type of __________ s/he buys

(11.) In purchasing __________ I am certain of my choice

(12.) It is really annoying to make an unsuitable purchase of ___________

Statements 1 - 5 measure Enduring involvement.

Statements 6 - 8 measure Situational involvement.

Statements 9 - 10 measure Normative importance.

Statements 11 - 12 measure Risk.

```
21 Aug 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1                              Page 1
-> TITLE "LISREL Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Final Reduced Scale" .
->
-> PRELIS
-> / VARIABLES=SCA1A SCA1B SCA1C SCA1K SCA1H SCA1G SCA1F SCA1E SCA1L
-> SCA1D SCA1J SCA1I
-> / MATRIX=OUT ('c:FINALCOR.SAV') .

                              P R E L I S  1.20

                                     BY

                         KARL G JORESKOG AND DAG SORBOM


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THE FOLLOWING PRELIS CONTROL LINES HAVE BEEN READ :


LISREL Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Final Reduced Scale;
DA NI=12 NO=0 MI= -0.989898D+37 MC=1 TR=LI
LA
   SCA1A     SCA1B     SCA1C     SCA1K     SCA1H     SCA1G     SCA1F     SCA1E     SCA1L
RA FI=i:\temp\spssb3.tmp
OU MA=KM SM=i:\temp\spssb4.tmp

DISTRIBUTION OF MISSING VALUES

TOTAL SAMPLE SIZE = 9190

NUMBER OF MISSING VALUES   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9  10  11  12
         NUMBER OF CASES9190 426 131  56  35  19  10  14   8   6   0   11004

LISTWISE DELETION

TOTAL EFFECTIVE SAMPLE SIZE = 9190

UNIVARIATE SUMMARY STATISTICS FOR CONTINUOUS VARIABLES
```

VARIABLE	MEAN	ST. DEV.	SKEWNESS	KURTOSIS	MINIMUM	FREQ.	MAXIMUM	FREQ.
SCA1A	2.213	1.241	.780	-.330	.000	53	5.000	671
SCA1B	2.271	1.278	.722	-.500	.000	58	5.000	768
SCA1C	2.368	1.312	.620	-.689	.000	56	5.000	904
SCA1K	2.024	1.142	1.012	.388	.000	68	5.000	487
SCA1H	4.003	1.281	-1.121	.244	.000	82	6.000	1
SCA1G	4.055	1.266	-1.245	.564	.000	73	6.000	1
SCA1F	2.637	1.410	.309	-1.126	.000	80	5.000	1319
SCA1E	3.003	1.361	-.074	-1.114	.000	66	5.000	1568
SCA1L	2.179	1.273	.803	-.337	.000	88	5.000	726
SCA1D	2.542	1.344	.388	-.979	.000	59	5.000	1015
SCA1J	2.367	1.381	.684	-.732	.000	65	5.000	1178
SCA1I	2.655	1.443	.340	-1.144	.000	84	5.000	1556

LISREL Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Final Reduced Scale;

ESTIMATED CORRELATION MATRIX

	SCA1A	SCA1B	SCA1C	SCA1K	SCA1H	SCA1G
SCA1A	1.000					
SCA1B	.867	1.000				
SCA1C	.761	.783	1.000			
SCA1K	.480	.487	.476	1.000		
SCA1H	.197	.218	.257	.172	1.000	
SCA1G	.278	.286	.319	.188	.691	1.000
SCA1F	.535	.555	.547	.476	.291	.336
SCA1E	.464	.479	.471	.392	.342	.384
SCA1L	.445	.458	.461	.519	.216	.248
SCA1D	.605	.620	.615	.472	.296	.341
SCA1J	.302	.295	.279	.371	.258	.237
SCA1I	.356	.360	.351	.376	.360	.322

ESTIMATED CORRELATION MATRIX

	SCA1F	SCA1E	SCA1L	SCA1D	SCA1J	SCA1I
SCA1F	1.000					
SCA1E	.628	1.000				
SCA1L	.546	.416	1.000			
SCA1D	.661	.674	.478	1.000		
SCA1J	.434	.428	.407	.404	1.000	
SCA1I	.490	.472	.414	.464	.718	1.000

THE PROBLEM USED 49456 BYTES (= 9.4% OF AVAILABLE WORKSPACE)

```
->
-> GET FILE='c:FINALCOR.SAV' .
->
-> LISREL
-> / DA NI=12 NO=10000 MA=KM
-> / MO NX=12 NK=4 PH=ST
-> / LK
-> / KSI_1 KSI_2 KSI_3 KSI_4
-> / PA LX
-> / 1 (1 0 0 0)
-> 1 (1 0 0 0)
-> 1 (1 0 0 0)
-> 1 (1 0 0 0)
-> 1 (0 1 0 0)
-> 1 (0 1 0 0)
-> 1 (0 0 1 0)
-> 1 (0 0 1 0)
-> 1 (0 0 1 0)
-> 1 (0 0 1 0)
-> 1 (0 0 0 1)
-> 1 (0 0 0 1)
-> / FR LX (1,1) LX (2,1) LX (3,1) LX (4,1)
-> LX (5,2) LX (6,2) LX (7,3) LX (8,3) LX (9,3) LX (10,3) LX (11,4)
-> LX (12,4)
-> / OU RO SE TV MI SS SC .
```

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                    L I S R E L  7.20

                          BY

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              (800)247-6113 or (312)684-4979
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```
THE FOLLOWING LISREL CONTROL LINES HAVE BEEN READ :


 DA NI=12 NO=10000 MA=KM XM=-0.989898D+09
KM FI=i:\temp\spssb6.tmp FO
(5E14.6)
LA
 SCA1A    SCA1B    SCA1C    SCA1K    SCA1H    SCA1G    SCA1F    SCA1E
 SCA1L    SCA1D    SCA1J    SCA1I
 MO NX=12 NK=4 PH=ST
 LK
 KSI_1 KSI_2 KSI_3 KSI_4
 PA LX
 1 (1 0 0 0)
   1 (1 0 0 0)
   1 (1 0 0 0)
   1 (1 0 0 0)
   1 (0 1 0 0)
   1 (0 1 0 0)
   1 (0 0 1 0)
   1 (0 0 1 0)
   1 (0 0 1 0)
   1 (0 0 1 0)
   1 (0 0 0 1)
   1 (0 0 0 1)
FR LX (1,1) LX (2,1) LX (3,1) LX (4,1)
  LX (5,2) LX (6,2) LX (7,3) LX (8,3) LX (9,3) LX (10,3) LX (11,4)
  LX (12,4)
OU RO SE TV MI SS SC
```

NSPECIFIED TITLE

NUMBER OF INPUT VARIABLES 12

NUMBER OF Y - VARIABLES 0

NUMBER OF X - VARIABLES 12

NUMBER OF ETA - VARIABLES 0

NUMBER OF KSI - VARIABLES 4

NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS 10000

NSPECIFIED TITLE

CORRELATION MATRIX TO BE ANALYZED

	SCA1A	SCA1B	SCA1C	SCA1K	SCA1H	SCA1G
SCA1A	1.001					
SCA1B	.867	1.001				
SCA1C	.761	.783	1.001			
SCA1K	.480	.487	.476	1.001		
SCA1H	.197	.218	.257	.172	1.001	
SCA1G	.278	.286	.319	.188	.691	1.001
SCA1F	.535	.555	.547	.476	.291	.336
SCA1E	.464	.479	.471	.392	.342	.384
SCA1L	.445	.458	.461	.519	.216	.248
SCA1D	.605	.620	.615	.472	.296	.341
SCA1J	.302	.295	.279	.371	.258	.237
SCA1I	.356	.360	.351	.376	.360	.322

CORRELATION MATRIX TO BE ANALYZED

	SCA1F	SCA1E	SCA1L	SCA1D	SCA1J	SCA1I
SCA1F	1.001					
SCA1E	.628	1.001				
SCA1L	.546	.416	1.001			
SCA1D	.661	.674	.478	1.001		
SCA1J	.434	.428	.407	.404	1.001	
SCA1I	.490	.472	.414	.464	.718	1.001

UNSPECIFIED TITLE

PARAMETER SPECIFICATIONS

LAMBDA X

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
SCA1A	1	-0	0	0
SCA1B	2	0	0	0
SCA1C	3	0	0	0
SCA1K	4	0	0	0
SCA1H	0	5	0	0
SCA1G	0	6	0	0
SCA1F	0	0	7	0
SCA1E	0	0	8	0
SCA1L	0	0	9	0
SCA1D	0	0	10	0
SCA1J	0	0	0	11
SCA1I	0	0	0	12

PHI

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
KSI_1	0			
KSI_2	13	0		
KSI_3	14	15	0	
KSI_4	16	17	18	0

THETA DELTA

SCA1A	SCA1B	SCA1C	SCA1K	SCA1H	SCA1G
19	20	21	22	23	24

THETA DELTA

SCA1F	SCA1E	SCA1L	SCA1D	SCA1J	SCA1I
25	26	27	28	29	30

UNSPECIFIED TITLE

INITIAL ESTIMATES (TSLS)

LAMBDA X

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
SCA1A	.913	.000	.000	.000
SCA1B	.937	.000	.000	.000
SCA1C	.836	.000	.000	.000
SCA1K	.541	.000	.000	.000
SCA1H	.000	.824	.000	.000
SCA1G	.000	.839	.000	.000
SCA1F	.000	.000	.810	.000
SCA1E	.000	.000	.754	.000
SCA1L	.000	.000	.629	.000
SCA1D	.000	.000	.831	.000
SCA1J	.000	.000	.000	.821
SCA1I	.000	.000	.000	.875

PHI

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
KSI_1	1.000			
KSI_2	.352	1.000		
KSI_3	.806	.489	1.000	
KSI_4	.469	.419	.680	1.000

THETA DELTA

SCA1A	SCA1B	SCA1C	SCA1K	SCA1H	SCA1G
.168	.122	.302	.708	.322	.297

THETA DELTA

SCA1F	SCA1E	SCA1L	SCA1D	SCA1J	SCA1I
.345	.433	.605	.311	.327	.235

SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS FOR X - VARIABLES

SCA1A	SCA1B	SCA1C	SCA1K	SCA1H	SCA1G
.832	.878	.699	.293	.678	.703

SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS FOR X - VARIABLES

SCA1F	SCA1E	SCA1L	SCA1D	SCA1J	SCA1I
.656	.567	.396	.689	.673	.765

TOTAL COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION FOR X - VARIABLES IS .999

UNSPECIFIED TITLE

LISREL ESTIMATES (MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD)

LAMBDA X

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
SCA1A	.916	.000	.000	.000
SCA1B	.936	.000	.000	.000
SCA1C	.841	.000	.000	.000
SCA1K	.544	.000	.000	.000
SCA1H	.000	.808	.000	.000
SCA1G	.000	.856	.000	.000
SCA1F	.000	.000	.808	.000
SCA1E	.000	.000	.765	.000
SCA1L	.000	.000	.620	.000
SCA1D	.000	.000	.837	.000
SCA1J	.000	.000	.000	.790
SCA1I	.000	.000	.000	.909

PHI

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
KSI_1	1.000			
KSI_2	.341	1.000		
KSI_3	.766	.488	1.000	
KSI_4	.435	.426	.660	1.000

THETA DELTA

SCA1A	SCA1B	SCA1C	SCA1K	SCA1H	SCA1G
.162	.125	.294	.705	.348	.269

THETA DELTA

SCA1F	SCA1E	SCA1L	SCA1D	SCA1J	SCA1I
.348	.416	.616	.300	.377	.175

SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS FOR X - VARIABLES

SCA1A	SCA1B	SCA1C	SCA1K	SCA1H	SCA1G
.838	.875	.706	.296	.652	.731

SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS FOR X - VARIABLES

SCA1F	SCA1E	SCA1L	SCA1D	SCA1J	SCA1I
.653	.584	.384	.700	.624	.825

TOTAL COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION FOR X - VARIABLES IS .999
CHI-SQUARE WITH 48 DEGREES OF FREEDOM = 3549.50 (P = .000)
GOODNESS OF FIT INDEX = .944
ADJUSTED GOODNESS OF FIT INDEX = .910
ROOT MEAN SQUARE RESIDUAL = .056

```
UNSPECIFIED TITLE

SUMMARY STATISTICS FOR FITTED RESIDUALS
SMALLEST FITTED RESIDUAL =    -.072
  MEDIAN FITTED RESIDUAL =     .000
 LARGEST FITTED RESIDUAL =     .260

STEMLEAF PLOT
- 0|77665
- 0|4443333332222221111111100000000000000000
  0|11111111222222333344
  0|5667788
  1|24
  1|68
  2|
  2|6

SUMMARY STATISTICS FOR STANDARDIZED RESIDUALS
SMALLEST STANDARDIZED RESIDUAL =  -18.297
  MEDIAN STANDARDIZED RESIDUAL =     .000
 LARGEST STANDARDIZED RESIDUAL =   34.007

STEMLEAF PLOT
- 1|883222110
- 0|9988877665444433222200000000000000
  0|1233333444445566778
  1|1123345589
  2|1135
  3|4

LARGEST NEGATIVE STANDARDIZED RESIDUALS

RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1C AND    SCA1A =  -7.767

RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1C AND    SCA1B =  -4.800

RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1K AND    SCA1A =  -7.118

RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1K AND    SCA1B = -11.022

RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1H AND    SCA1A = -12.495

RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1H AND    SCA1B = -10.000

RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1F AND    SCA1A =  -8.790

RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1F AND    SCA1B =  -7.375

RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1F AND    SCA1H =  -5.856
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RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1E AND    SCA1A = -17.986
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1E AND    SCA1B = -18.297
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1E AND    SCA1C =  -4.285
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1L AND    SCA1H =  -4.108
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1L AND    SCA1E = -13.459
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1D AND    SCA1H =  -8.205
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1D AND    SCA1F =  -8.017
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1D AND    SCA1L = -12.359
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1J AND    SCA1A =  -2.689
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1J AND    SCA1B =  -5.960
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1J AND    SCA1H =  -2.907
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1J AND    SCA1G = -11.127
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1J AND    SCA1D =  -8.858
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1I AND    SCA1B =  -3.719
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1I AND    SCA1G =  -3.665
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1I AND    SCA1D = -11.779

LARGEST POSITIVE STANDARDIZED RESIDUALS
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1B AND    SCA1A =  24.940
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1K AND    SCA1C =   4.529
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1H AND    SCA1C =   4.443
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1H AND    SCA1K =   2.742
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1G AND    SCA1A =   2.859
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1G AND    SCA1B =   3.599
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1G AND    SCA1C =  14.113
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1G AND    SCA1K =   3.561
RESIDUAL FOR    SCA1F AND    SCA1C =   5.944
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RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1F AND   SCA1K =  21.195
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1E AND   SCA1K =  10.677
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1E AND   SCA1H =   7.758
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1E AND   SCA1G =  12.566
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1E AND   SCA1F =   3.527
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1L AND   SCA1B =   2.767
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1L AND   SCA1C =  10.514
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1L AND   SCA1K =  34.007
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1L AND   SCA1F =  11.913
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1D AND   SCA1A =   5.489
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1D AND   SCA1B =   6.852
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1D AND   SCA1C =  17.996
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1D AND   SCA1K =  19.387
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1D AND   SCA1E =  14.738
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1J AND   SCA1K =  22.863
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1J AND   SCA1F =   3.056
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1J AND   SCA1E =   6.075
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1J AND   SCA1L =  13.422
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1I AND   SCA1C =   4.001
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1I AND   SCA1K =  21.183
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1I AND   SCA1H =  15.086
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1I AND   SCA1E =   3.062
RESIDUAL FOR   SCA1I AND   SCA1L =   7.313
```

UNSPECIFIED TITLE

STANDARD ERRORS

LAMBDA X

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
SCA1A	.008	.000	.000	.000
SCA1B	.008	.000	.000	.000
SCA1C	.008	.000	.000	.000
SCA1K	.009	.000	.000	.000
SCA1H	.000	.011	.000	.000
SCA1G	.000	.011	.000	.000
SCA1F	.000	.000	.009	.000
SCA1E	.000	.000	.009	.000
SCA1L	.000	.000	.009	.000
SCA1D	.000	.000	.008	.000
SCA1J	.000	.000	.000	.009
SCA1I	.000	.000	.000	.009

PHI

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
KSI_1	.000			
KSI_2	.010	.000		
KSI_3	.005	.010	.000	
KSI_4	.009	.010	.008	.000

THETA DELTA

SCA1A	SCA1B	SCA1C	SCA1K	SCA1H	SCA1G
.004	.003	.005	.010	.013	.014

THETA DELTA

SCA1F	SCA1E	SCA1L	SCA1D	SCA1J	SCA1I
.006	.007	.009	.006	.009	.010

UNSPECIFIED TITLE

T-VALUES

LAMBDA X

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
SCA1A	117.666	.000	.000	.000
SCA1B	122.176	.000	.000	.000
SCA1C	102.458	.000	.000	.000
SCA1K	57.408	.000	.000	.000
SCA1H	.000	74.152	.000	.000
SCA1G	.000	77.785	.000	.000
SCA1F	.000	.000	94.104	.000
SCA1E	.000	.000	86.813	.000
SCA1L	.000	.000	65.685	.000
SCA1D	.000	.000	99.133	.000
SCA1J	.000	.000	.000	83.227
SCA1I	.000	.000	.000	97.499

PHI

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
KSI_1	.000			
KSI_2	33.230	.000		
KSI_3	142.533	50.701	.000	
KSI_4	46.662	41.760	87.049	.000

THETA DELTA

SCA1A	SCA1B	SCA1C	SCA1K	SCA1H	SCA1G
44.489	36.597	59.523	68.837	27.674	19.879

THETA DELTA

SCA1F	SCA1E	SCA1L	SCA1D	SCA1J	SCA1I
54.465	58.679	65.450	50.479	41.720	17.547

UNSPECIFIED TITLE

STANDARDIZED SOLUTION

LAMBDA X

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
SCA1A	.916	.000	.000	.000
SCA1B	.936	.000	.000	.000
SCA1C	.841	.000	.000	.000
SCA1K	.544	.000	.000	.000
SCA1H	.000	.808	.000	.000
SCA1G	.000	.856	.000	.000
SCA1F	.000	.000	.808	.000
SCA1E	.000	.000	.765	.000
SCA1L	.000	.000	.620	.000
SCA1D	.000	.000	.837	.000
SCA1J	.000	.000	.000	.790
SCA1I	.000	.000	.000	.909

PHI

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
KSI_1	1.000			
KSI_2	.341	1.000		
KSI_3	.766	.488	1.000	
KSI_4	.435	.426	.660	1.000

UNSPECIFIED TITLE

COMPLETELY STANDARDIZED SOLUTION

LAMBDA X

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
SCA1A	.915	.000	.000	.000
SCA1B	.936	.000	.000	.000
SCA1C	.840	.000	.000	.000
SCA1K	.544	.000	.000	.000
SCA1H	.000	.808	.000	.000
SCA1G	.000	.855	.000	.000
SCA1F	.000	.000	.808	.000
SCA1E	.000	.000	.764	.000
SCA1L	.000	.000	.620	.000
SCA1D	.000	.000	.837	.000
SCA1J	.000	.000	.000	.790
SCA1I	.000	.000	.000	.909

PHI

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
KSI_1	1.000			
KSI_2	.341	1.000		
KSI_3	.766	.488	1.000	
KSI_4	.435	.426	.660	1.000

THETA DELTA

SCA1A	SCA1B	SCA1C	SCA1K	SCA1H	SCA1G
.162	.125	.294	.704	.348	.269

THETA DELTA

SCA1F	SCA1E	SCA1L	SCA1D	SCA1J	SCA1I
.347	.416	.616	.300	.376	.175

UNSPECIFIED TITLE

MODIFICATION INDICES AND ESTIMATED CHANGE

MODIFICATION INDICES FOR LAMBDA X

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
SCA1A	.000	42.411	111.264	16.482
SCA1B	.000	27.501	127.296	59.789
SCA1C	.000	159.625	177.490	16.639
SCA1K	.000	38.233	868.756	634.946
SCA1H	112.410	.000	174.161	145.948
SCA1G	112.410	.000	174.161	145.948
SCA1F	16.170	9.087	.000	3.945
SCA1E	321.954	148.577	.000	28.918
SCA1L	54.598	7.084	.000	94.776
SCA1D	225.455	36.613	.000	163.969
SCA1J	5.650	86.796	12.655	.000
SCA1I	5.650	86.796	12.655	.000

ESTIMATED CHANGE FOR LAMBDA X

	KSI_1	KSI_2	KSI_3	KSI_4
SCA1A	.000	-.039	-.106	-.025
SCA1B	.000	-.031	-.113	-.047
SCA1C	.000	.089	.150	.030
SCA1K	.000	.063	.466	.261
SCA1H	-.121	.000	-.413	.205
SCA1G	.128	.000	.438	-.218
SCA1F	-.055	-.028	.000	.022
SCA1E	-.249	.119	.000	.063
SCA1L	.113	-.029	.000	.126
SCA1D	.204	-.056	.000	-.143
SCA1J	-.025	-.100	.120	.000
SCA1I	.029	.115	-.138	.000

NO NON-ZERO MODIFICATION INDICES FOR PHI

NO NON-ZERO MODIFICATION INDICES FOR THETA DELTA

MAXIMUM MODIFICATION INDEX IS 868.76 FOR ELEMENT (4, 3) OF LAMBDA X

THE PROBLEM USED 15480 BYTES (= 3.0% OF AVAILABLE WORKSPACE)

TIME USED : 2.4 SECONDS

Introduction

The European food retail structure and the internationalisation trends of food retailers have been reviewed in Chapter 2. To place the consumer results of variations in involvement levels, as identified in Chapter 7, in a retail context, it is pertinent to examine the environment in which the consumer exhibits this cognitive process. Consumer involvement impacts on product usage, evaluation of alternative products/brands and brand loyalty. Food retail stores across four European Union countries have been observed in terms of store layout, product shelf space and number of brands available. It is interesting to investigate whether or not retailers have responded to the previously identified variations in consumer behaviour by adapting their store operations.

The store observation study is provided for illustrative purposes only due to the limited methodology and generalisability. The results of the study provide a comparison, however, between the consumer findings and retail operation. Key results of the observation have thus been applied into Chapter 7. The current chapter summarises the output of the study further.

European Food Retail Stores Observed

At least three food stores were observed in each of four European Union countries: UK, France Germany and Italy. Store layouts were examined to determine key placements of food categories. Table A details the food products that were investigated in each store. Product shelf space, in terms of linear meterage (shelf front in cm) was observed, together with the number of brands and types of products within a product category. The observation dataset is detailed in Attachment A. A sample of small, medium and large supermarkets (see definition of 'supermarket' in Chapter 5) were randomly selected from the telephone directory in each city, with size of stores varying from 600 square metres of trading space to over 11,000 square metres. The sampling frame utilised is illustrated in Attachment B.

Table A Product Categories Observed

Product Category	Sub-grouping
Cheese	Chilled, packaged
	Fresh, uncut, counter
Milk	
Frozen ready-made meals	
Coffee	Ground (& beans)
	Instant
Fresh, packaged, chilled red meat	
Fresh, packaged, chilled poultry	
Fresh fruit	
Fresh vegetables	
Wine	Red and Rose
	White and Champagne
Bottled mineral water	
Bread	Fresh, un-packaged, bakery
	Fresh, packaged, branded,

European Store Layouts

It is interesting to note the differences and similarities in store layouts across Europe. The UK and Germany follow similar formats, particularly in terms of entrance products, which are fresh produce, often fruits and vegetables in the UK, and meats in Germany to attract the shopper into the store (Figures A and B). The bulk of what supermarkets sell is frozen, tinned and preserved foods. Fresh produce are placed immediately inside the entrance to promote the more appealing image of freshness, healthy eating and even 'greenness' (Sunday Times, 1990).

By comparison, France and Spain follow similar layouts, in that non-food products are presented at the entrance, together with seasonal promotions that are on offer (Figure C and D). The reverse psychology applying to this practice is that in order to get to the fresh produce, shoppers have to pass by other products and, therefore, be tempted to impulse purchase, which perhaps they may have missed if the fresh produce is within easy access. Customers are thereby 'led' through the maximum number of aisles and past tempting higher margin items stimulating maximum sales and profit. All of the Spanish supermarkets observed are subsidiaries of French retailers and it appears that the French format has been imposed into the Spanish market with little adaptation. The comprehensive portfolio of observed store layouts are detailed in Attachment C.

Figure A Store Layout of Sainsbury, Leicester, UK

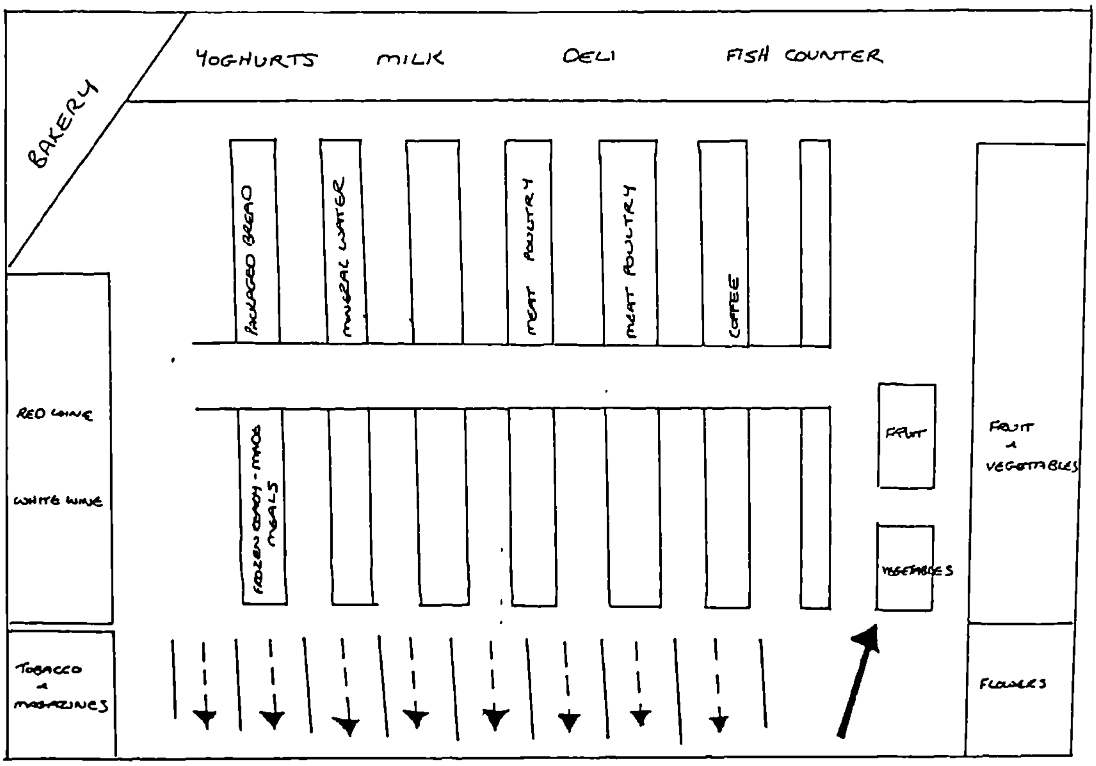


Figure B Store Layout of Hertie, Konstanz, Germany

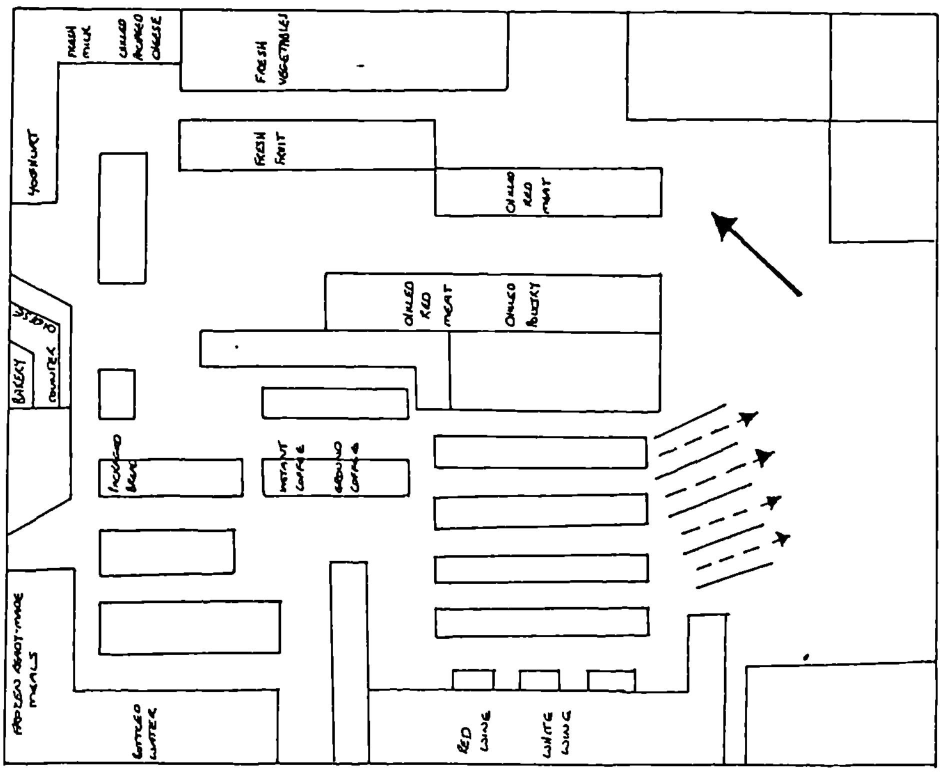


Figure C Store Layout of Continent, Paris, France

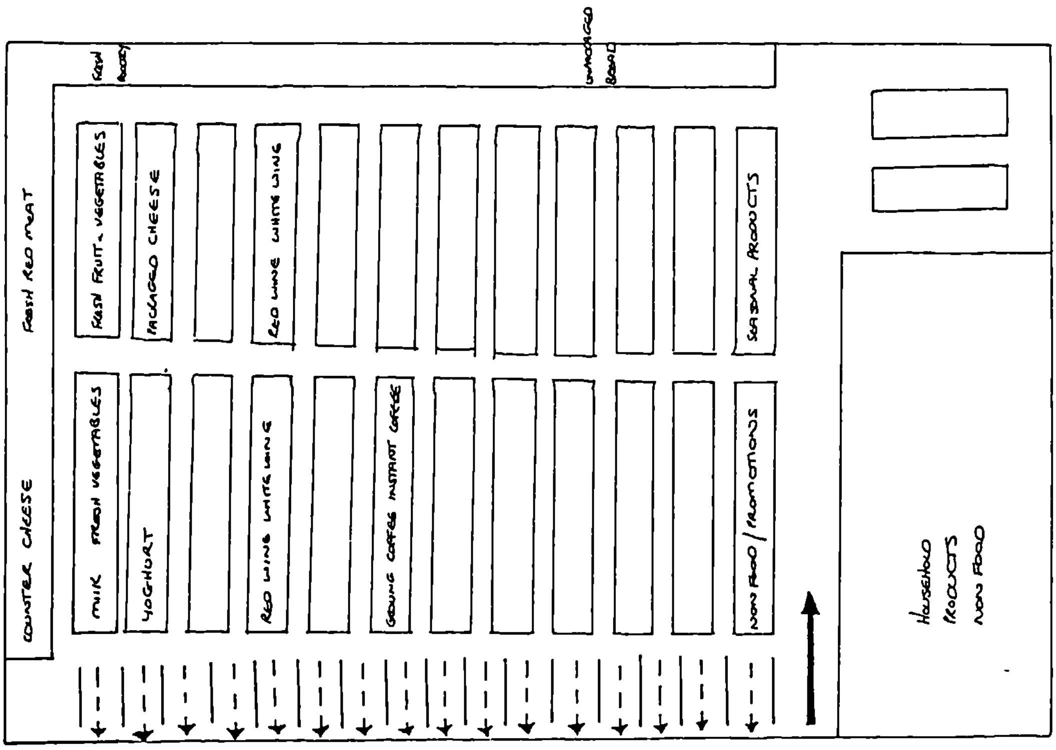
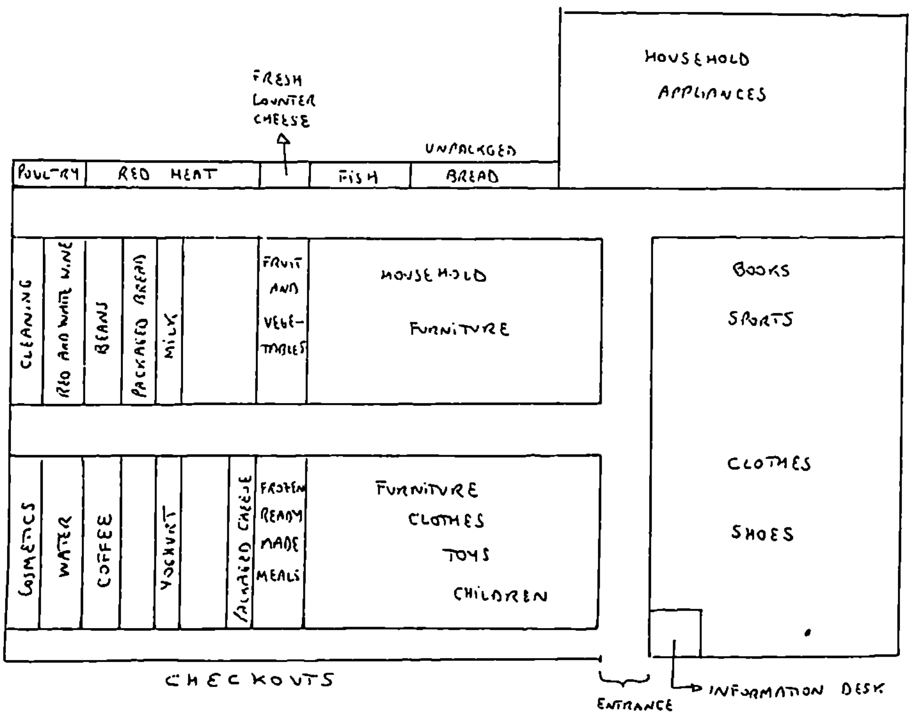


Figure D Store Layout of Continente, Seville, Spain



A Comparison of European Product Shelf Space

Although the stores observed are of different sizes and so exact comparison is difficult, it is interesting to compare the proportion of selling space attributable to each product. In Germany, the selling space available to frozen ready-meals is greater than that of bakery bread, packaged cheese and coffee (Figure E). This can be compared with France where cheese has the greatest proportion of selling space. Indeed France has the greatest penetration of types and brands of cheeses as is evidenced from the huge fresh cheese counter in Continent's store in Villetaneause, Paris, France (Figure F). All four countries provide the greatest amount of shelf space for fresh vegetables. The space allocation of unbranded products, however, does vary considerably across countries. In the UK, the second largest product space allocation is for red meat, this can be compared with poultry in France, and fresh fruit in Germany and Spain where allocation can be thought of as following somewhat similar formats (Figure G).

Figure E

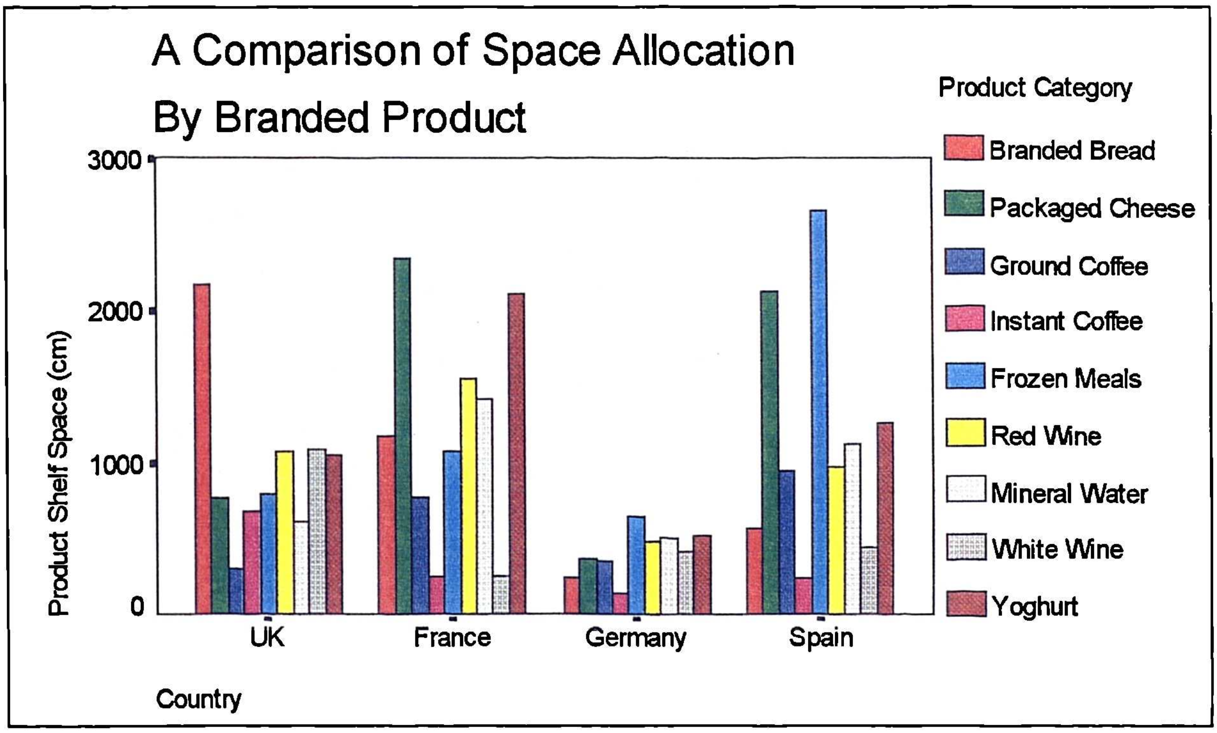
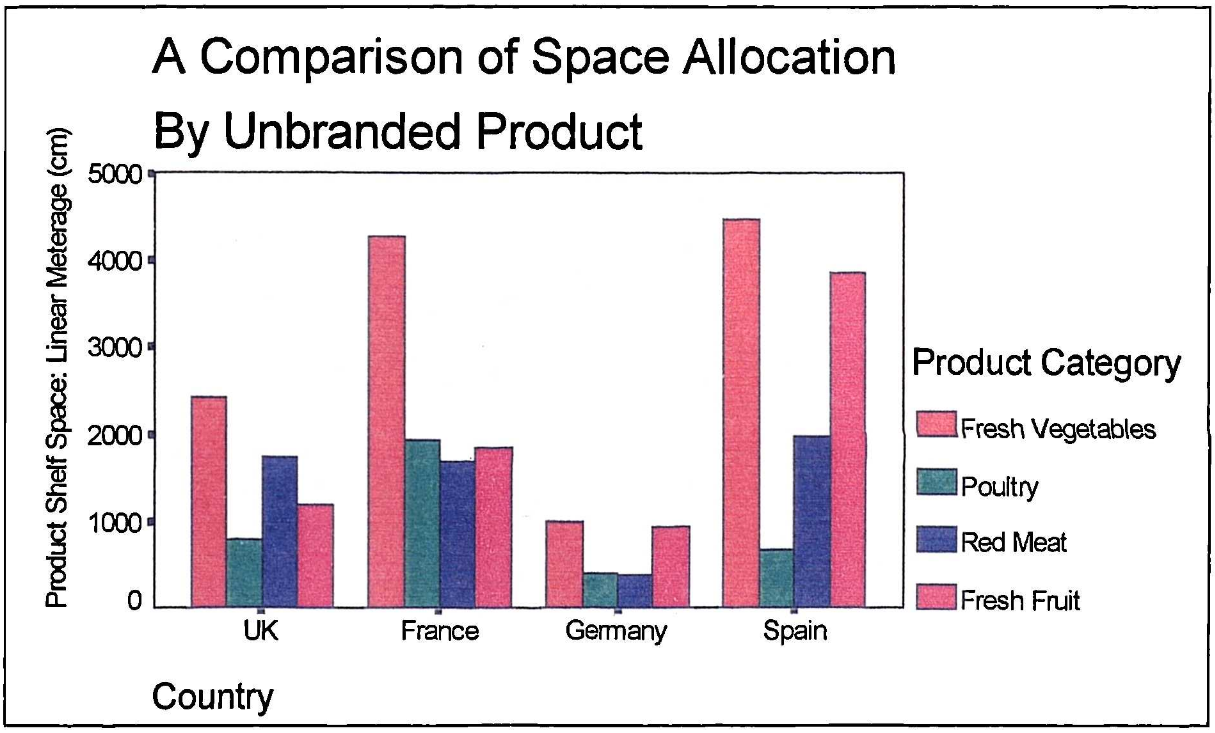


Figure F Store Interior of Continent, Lyon, France

Figure G



Summary

An examination of retail operations provides a context in which consumer behaviour can be understood. The store observation study is a small step towards such an understanding. Specifically, by evaluating purchase behaviour and store layout a strategy for store optimisation can be compiled. Although retailers have implemented limited adaptation to local markets they may, indeed, benefit from identifying similarities and differences in consumer behaviour to target market, enhance customer satisfaction and maximise sales.

References

Continent (1995) 'Edition Des Ratios Chiffre D'Affaire H.T. Par Heures Travaillees pour l'Hypermarch Ollioules', Promodes: Paris

Martin, P. (1990) 'Trolley Fodder. How Supermarkets Make a Meal of You', The Sunday Times Magazine, November 4, pp.25-36

Interviews with:
Mr Beauchet, Promodes, Paris
Mr Poinson, Continent, Paris
Mr Navarro, Continent, Lyon
Mr Lacroix, Continent, Toulon

ATTACHMENT A: Dataset of Observation Study

	country	city	store	cheesea1	cheesea2	cheesea3	cheeseb1	cheeseb2	cheeseb3	milk1	milk2
1	3	5	5	23.00	480.00	3.00	62.00	375.00	1.00	6.00	330.00
2	3	5	6	11.00	240.00	4.00	85.00	375.00	1.00	9.00	210.00
3	3	5	7	11.00	360.00	2.00	.	.	.	.	.
4	4	7	11	21.00	2670.00	5.00	12.00	588.00	1.00	17.00	3111.00
5	4	7	12	36.00	2525.00	5.00	31.00	600.00	1.00	15.00	1700.00
6	4	7	13	21.00	1225.00	4.00	23.00	1025.00	1.00	13.00	3750.00
7	3	6	8	53.00	360.00	5.00	100.00	710.00	1.00	5.00	190.00
8	3	6	9	58.00	350.00	4.00	80.00	500.00	1.00	12.00	220.00
9	3	6	10	60.00	440.00	4.00	90.00	300.00	1.00	12.00	470.00
10	2	2	4	280.00	2347.00	5.00	180.00	1875.00	1.00	.	.
11	2	4	4	290.00	3800.00	5.00	153.00	1900.00	1.00	.	123.00
12	2	3	4	246.00	246.00	6.00	141.00	2214.00	1.00	.	.
13	1	1	1	216.00	900.00	6.00	15.00	180.00	5.00	12.00	540.00
14	1	1	2	162.00	660.00	5.00	61.00	450.00	1.00	9.00	450.00

	milk3	froz1	froz2	froz3	coffeea1	coffeea2	coffeea3	coffeeb1	coffeeb2	coffeeb3	yog1
1	1.00	14.00	1020.00	1.00	10.00	525.00	5.00	8.00	120.00	3.00	16.00
2	1.00	11.00	830.00	1.00	9.00	480.00	4.00	6.00	120.00	3.00	14.00
3	.	9.00	480.00	1.00	1.00	330.00	1.00	1.00	120.00	1.00	12.00
4	1.00	20.00	1269.00	1.00	9.00	1470.00	4.00	6.00	245.00	4.00	8.00
5	1.00	19.00	2125.00	4.00	6.00	375.00	5.00	4.00	250.00	5.00	5.00
6	1.00	12.00	4600.00	1.00	6.00	1000.00	5.00	4.00	250.00	5.00	6.00
7	1.00	8.00	660.00	1.00	11.00	280.00	4.00	5.00	110.00	3.00	19.00
8	1.00	10.00	610.00	1.00	12.00	180.00	5.00	7.00	90.00	6.00	29.00
9	1.00	17.00	320.00	1.00	15.00	360.00	6.00	13.00	300.00	1.00	29.00
10	.	94.00	1072.00	6.00	56.00	774.00	4.00	42.00	258.00	5.00	192.00
11	2.00	95.00	1200.00	1.00	88.00	931.00	5.00	54.00	266.00	5.00	410.00
12	.	17.00	75.00	5.00	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
13	4.00	56.00	810.00	1.00	60.00	360.00	7.00	39.00	600.00	5.00	145.00
14	3.00	74.00	780.00	4.00	52.00	270.00	6.00	29.00	780.00	4.00	115.00

	yog2	yog3	meat1	meat2	meat3	poultry1	poultry2	poultry3	fruit1	fruit2	fruit3
1	900.00	5.00	16.00	270.00	2.00	13.00	1290.00	3.00	26.00	521.00	2.00
2	540.00	4.00	38.00	870.00	3.00	9.00	120.00	3.00	29.00	1590.00	1.00
3	360.00	2.00	.	.	.	2.00	60.00	1.00	7.00	420.00	2.00
4	245.00	4.00	40.00	1146.00	1.00	4.00	735.00	3.00	14.00	4118.00	1.00
5	1250.00	5.00	48.00	1800.00	1.00	9.00	725.00	4.00	17.00	2775.00	1.00
6	2300.00	4.00	93.00	3000.00	1.00	24.00	562.00	3.00	8.00	4700.00	1.00
7	250.00	5.00	3.00	240.00	5.00	3.00	180.00	7.00	28.00	950.00	1.00
8	360.00	5.00	9.00	260.00	3.00	6.00	350.00	1.00	34.00	660.00	1.00
9	560.00	3.00	13.00	300.00	1.00	7.00	150.00	1.00	48.00	950.00	1.00
10	2108.00	5.00	6.00	2706.00	4.00	2.00	3116.00	6.00	40.00	615.00	5.00
11	3800.00	3.00	35.00	700.00	5.00	8.00	750.00	4.00	66.00	3100.00	.
12	.	.	8.00	228.00	4.00	5.00	615.00	4.00	.	.	.
13	1020.00	5.00	53.00	1380.00	5.00	74.00	690.00	4.00	68.00	1110.00	5.00
14	1080.00	5.00	55.00	2100.00	5.00	90.00	900.00	5.00	44.00	1260.00	3.00

	veg1	veg2	veg3	redwine1	redwine2	redwine3	whitew1	whitew2	whitew3	water1	water2
1	49.00	521.00	2.00	40.00	285 00	2.00	91.00	285.00	6.00	19.00	960.00
2	36.00	1590 00	1.00	70.00	240.00	5.00	84.00	240.00	5.00	14.00	360.00
3	10.00	420.00	2.00	9 00	150.00	2.00	14.00	300.00	2.00	2.00	150.00
4	11.00	2964 00	1 00	83 00	588.00	5.00	39.00	441.00	5.00	12.00	1470.00
5	15 00	3450 00	1.00	107.00	950.00	4.00	52.00	400 00	4.00	12.00	900.00
6	14.00	7050 00	1 00	57 00	1375.00	5.00	30.00	500 00	5.00	9.00	1000.00
7	47 00	550.00	2.00	100 00	1050.00	5.00	80.00	890.00	5 00	12.00	100.00
8	36 00	1240 00	1.00	80.00	430.00	4.00	70.00	360.00	4.00	24.00	600.00
9	58.00	1150.00	1.00	90.00	410.00	5.00	70.00	360.00	5.00	17.00	560.00
10	60.00	5450.00	1.00	100.00	1560.00	5.00	40 00	260.00	5.00	38.00	1419.00
11	84.00	3100.00	.	.	.	5.00	.	.	5.00	72.00	1862.00
12	50.00	1056.00	3.00	.	1323.00	5.00	1323.00	5.00	.	38.00	128.00
13	181.00	1800.00	5.00	152.00	720.00	5.00	178.00	1050.00	5.00	30.00	600.00
14	106.00	3060.00	4.00	141.00	1440.00	4.00	163.00	1140.00	5.00	26.00	630.00

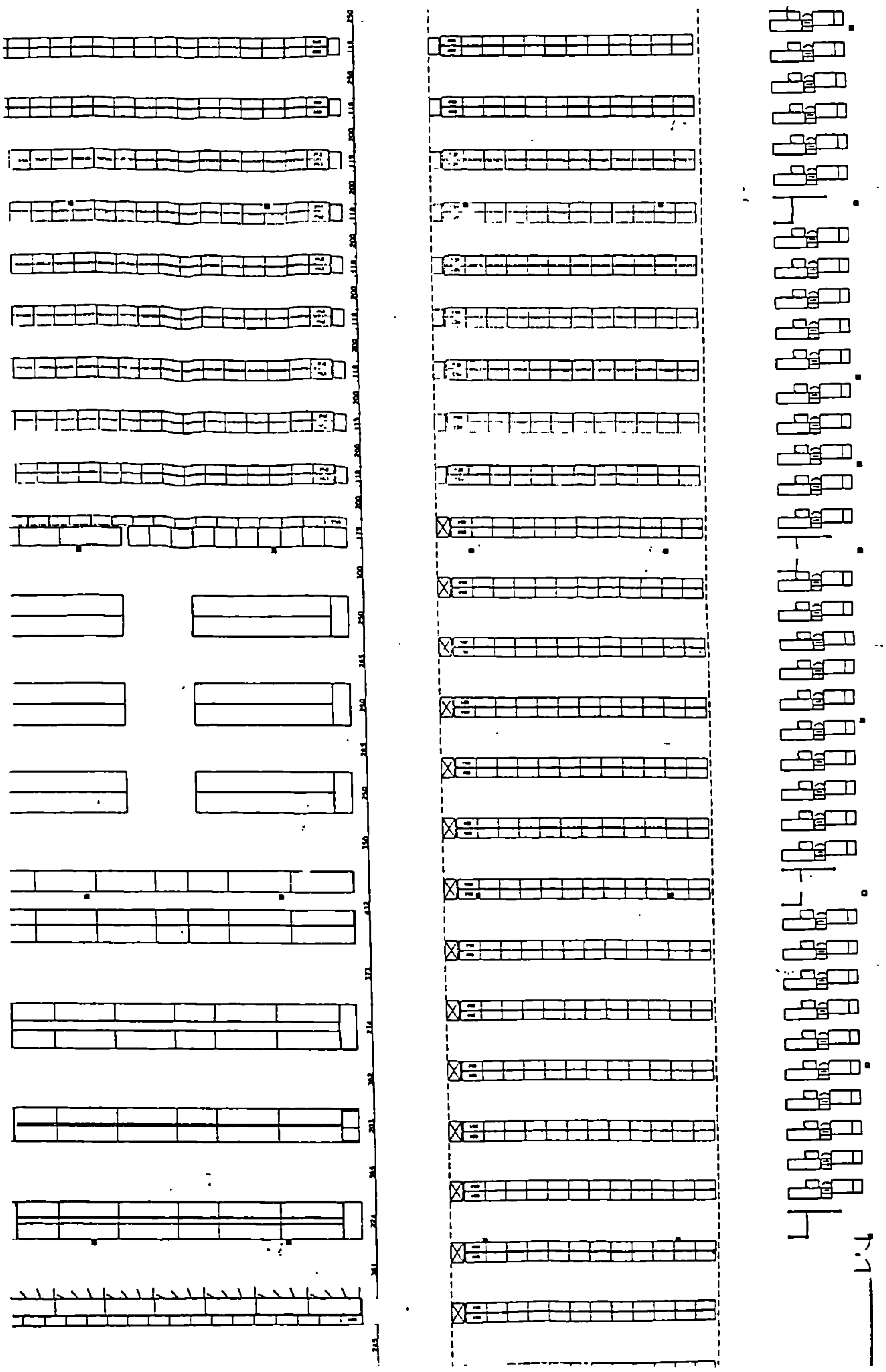
water3	breada1	breada2	breada3	breadb1	breadb2	breadb3	checkout	size	filter_$
2.00	11.00	210.00	4 00	13.00	975.00	6.00	10.00	1500.00	0
2.00	7.00	330 00	3.00	8.00	615.00	6.00	8.00	1200.00	0
1.00	.	.	.	2.00	525.00	3.00	4.00	600.00	0
3.00	13.00	392.00	4 00	8.00	612.00	3.00	52.00	.	0
4.00	19.00	450.00	3.00	6.00	562.00	5.00	47.00	.	0
1.00	17.00	875.00	2.00	7 00	900 00	5.00	57.00	11108.00	0
2.00	45.00	180.00	3.00	16.00	200.00	5.00	4.00	.	0
3.00	55.00	250.00	4 00	15.00	380 00	6.00	4.00	.	0
1.00	.	250.00	4 00	19.00	190.00	6.00	3.00	.	0
6.00	36.00	1178.00	5.00	.	.	.	32.00	6400.00	0
5.00	266.00	39.00	5.00	.	132.00	5.00	50.00	8000.00	0
37 00	924.00	23.00	4 00	1.00	.	.	40 00	3500.00	0
5.00	65.00	2300 00	5.00	104.00	960.00	6.00	27.00	2970.00	1
4 00	47 00	2040.00	4.00	85.00	1440.00	5.00	29.00	4050 00	1

ATTACHMENT B: An Illustrative Selection of the Observation Study Sampling Frame

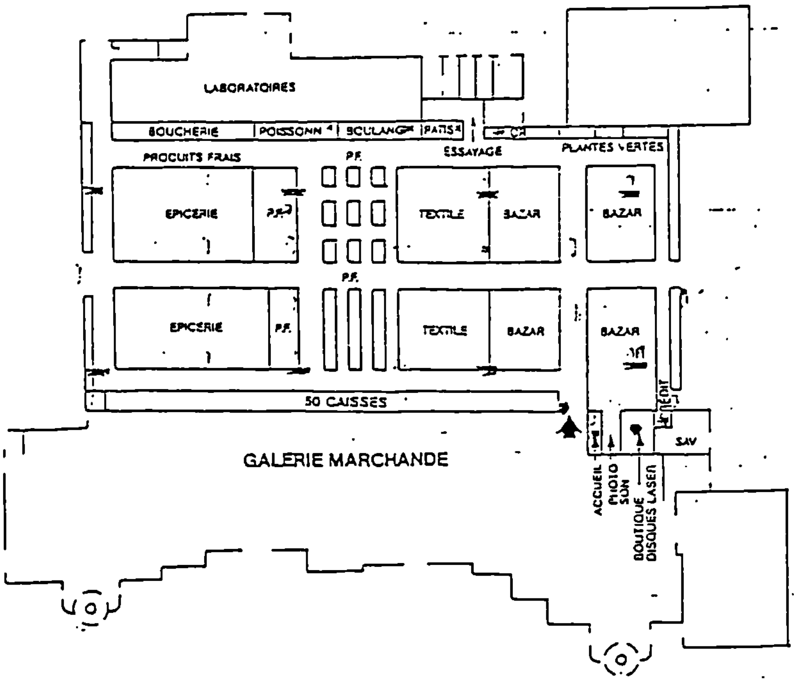
City & Country	Sampling Frame
Seville, Spain	Continente, Ctra. San Pablo KM 3535,6 41001
	Continente, Avda. Doctor Fleming, Ctra. Nacional IV 41700, Dos Hermanas
	Continente, Ctra. S. Juan De Aznalfarache-Palomares KM1,8 41920
	Hipercor, Ctra. Tamares KM.630, Pol El Machon 41920, S. Juan de Aznalfarache
	Hipercor, Ctra. Sevilla-Malaga KM.4,900
	Pryca, Avda. De Andalucia S/N
	Alcampo, C/Tamarguillo S/N
Konstanz, Germany	Agrota GmbH Lilioenthalstr
	Aich Buhlenweg 34a
	Alwahdy E. Rheingasse 8
	Breda A.Fil. Neuhauser Str. 16
	Degen E.Kindlebildstr. 2
	Edeka-Aktiv-Markt Kanzleistr. 2
	Freigag Kruzlinger Str.26
	Grosse-Markt Seerheincenter
	Hertie, Hussen. 23
	Kaiser's Kaffee-Gescheft
	Klatt Leinerstr. 7
	Lidl Gmbh, KG Kanzleiistr. 65
	Mayer, Heinrich-von-Tettingen Str. 2
	Norma-Lebensmittelfilialbetrieb
	Plus, Mainaustr. 79
	Tengelmann E. Munzgasse. 2
	Zimmermann C. Hans-Thoma-Str.4

ATTACHMENT C: Portfolio of Store Layouts

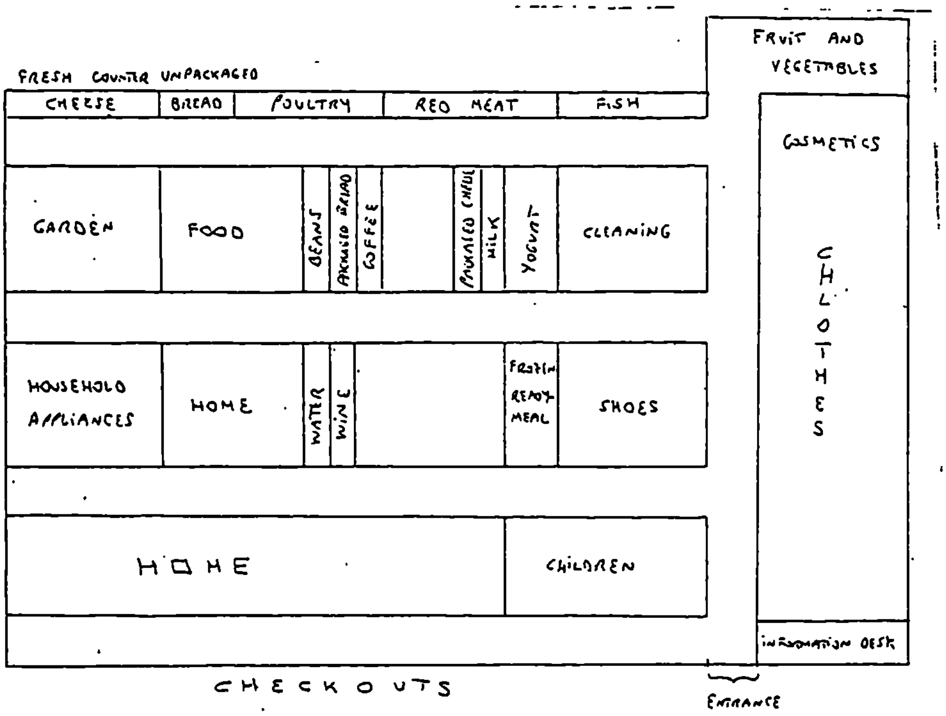
Continent, Vaux-en-Velin, Lyon, France



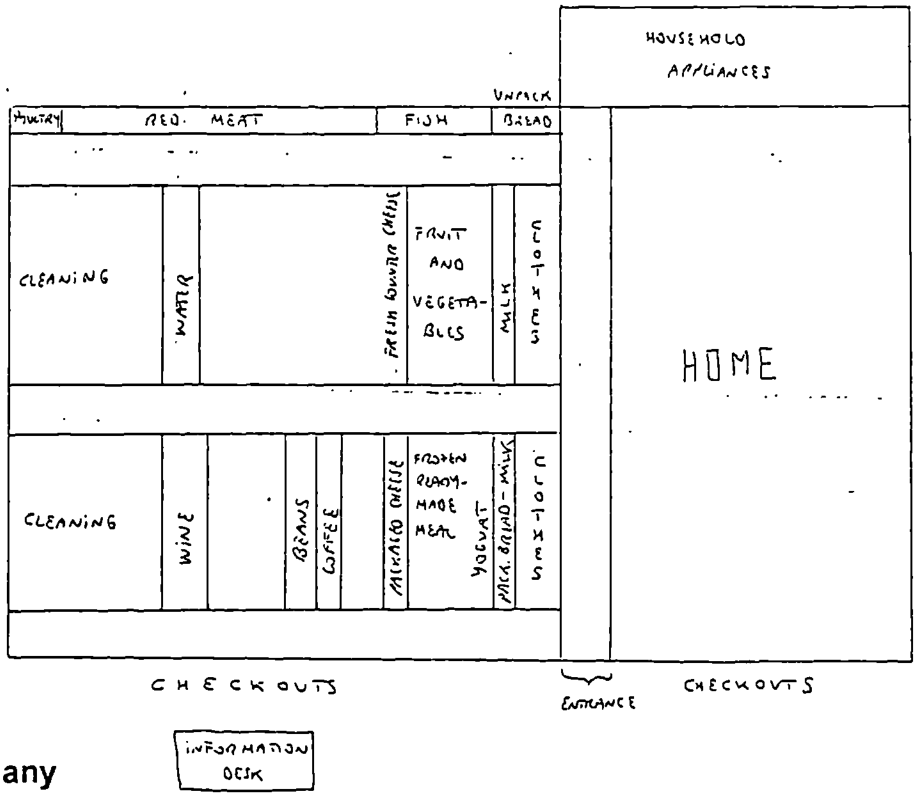
Continent, Toulon, France



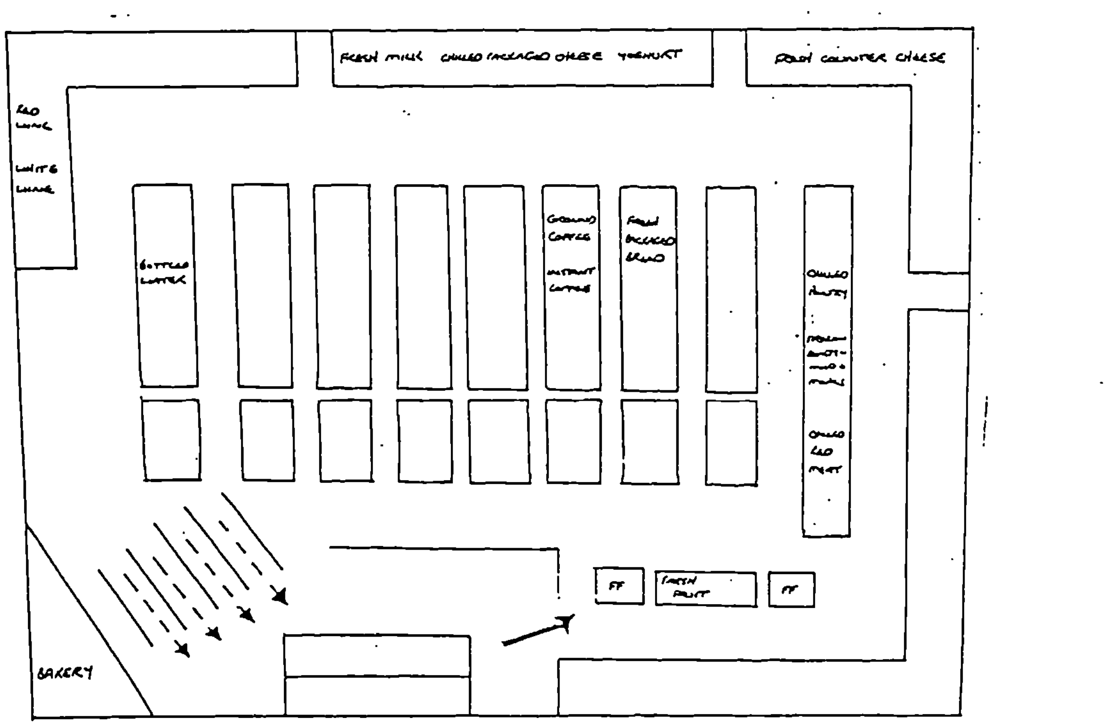
Hipercor, Seville, Spain



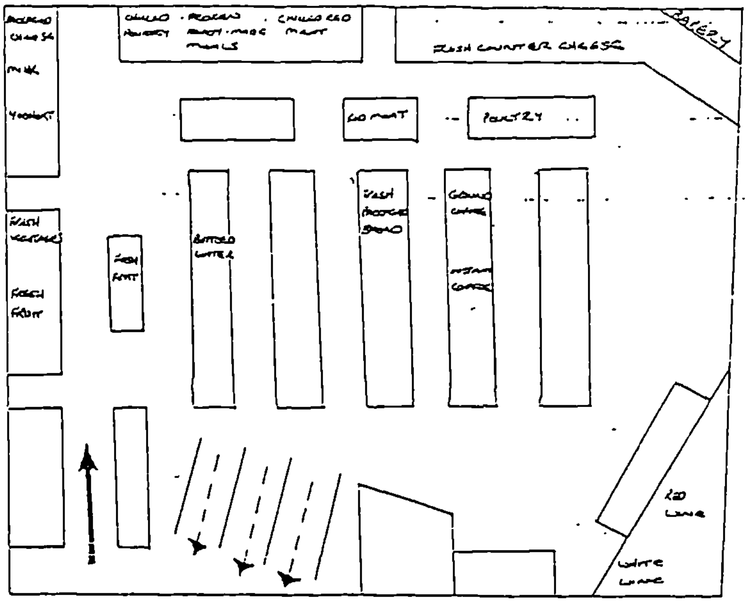
Pryca, Seville, Spain



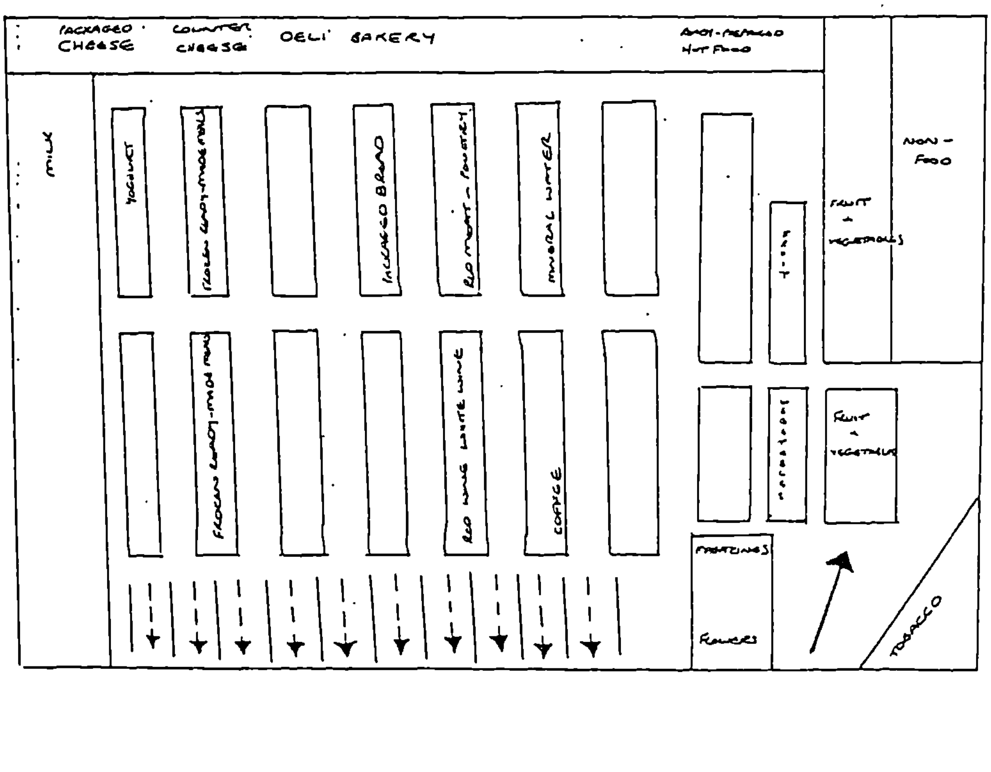
E-Aktiv, Kostanz, Germany

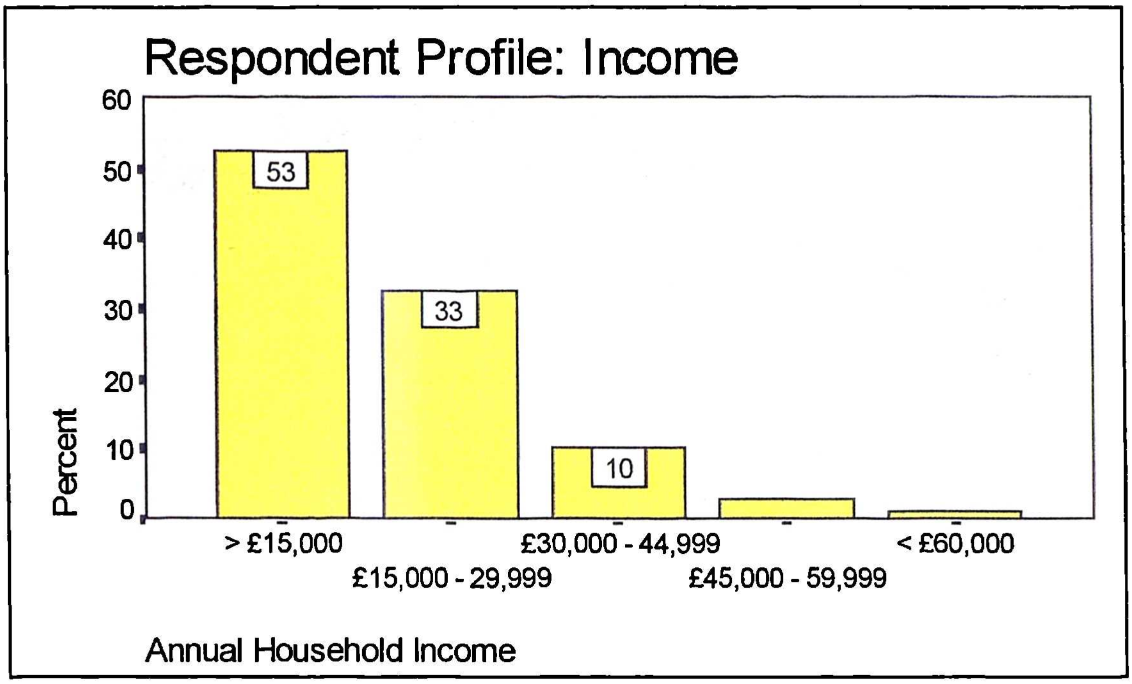


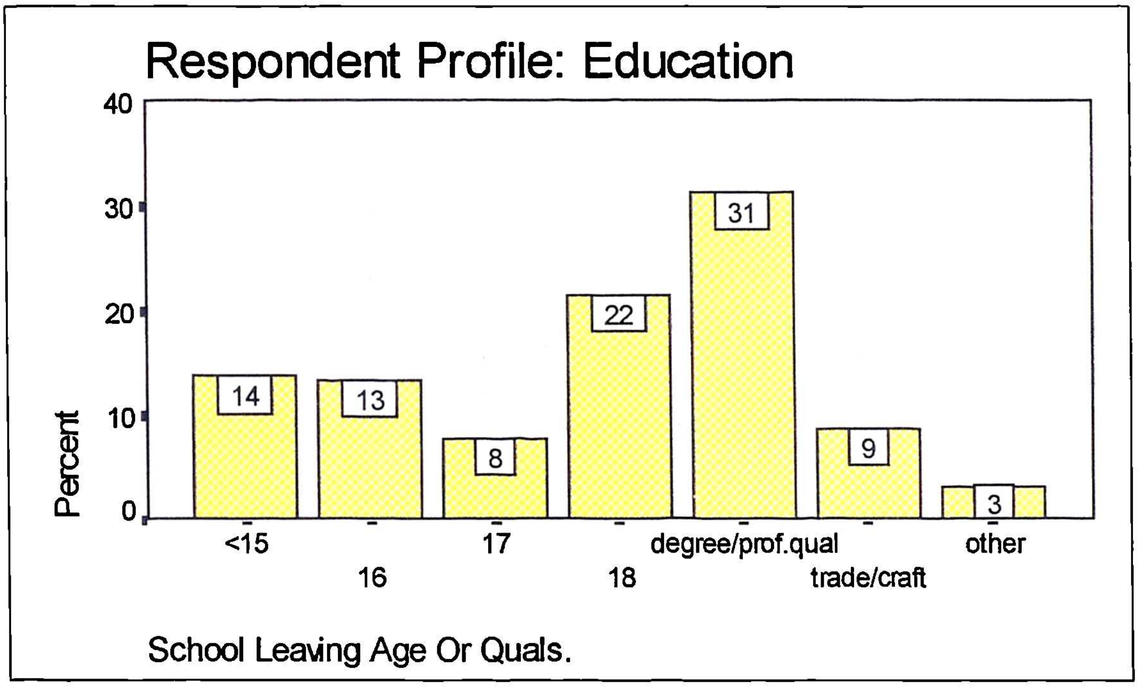
Tengelmann, Konstanz, Germany

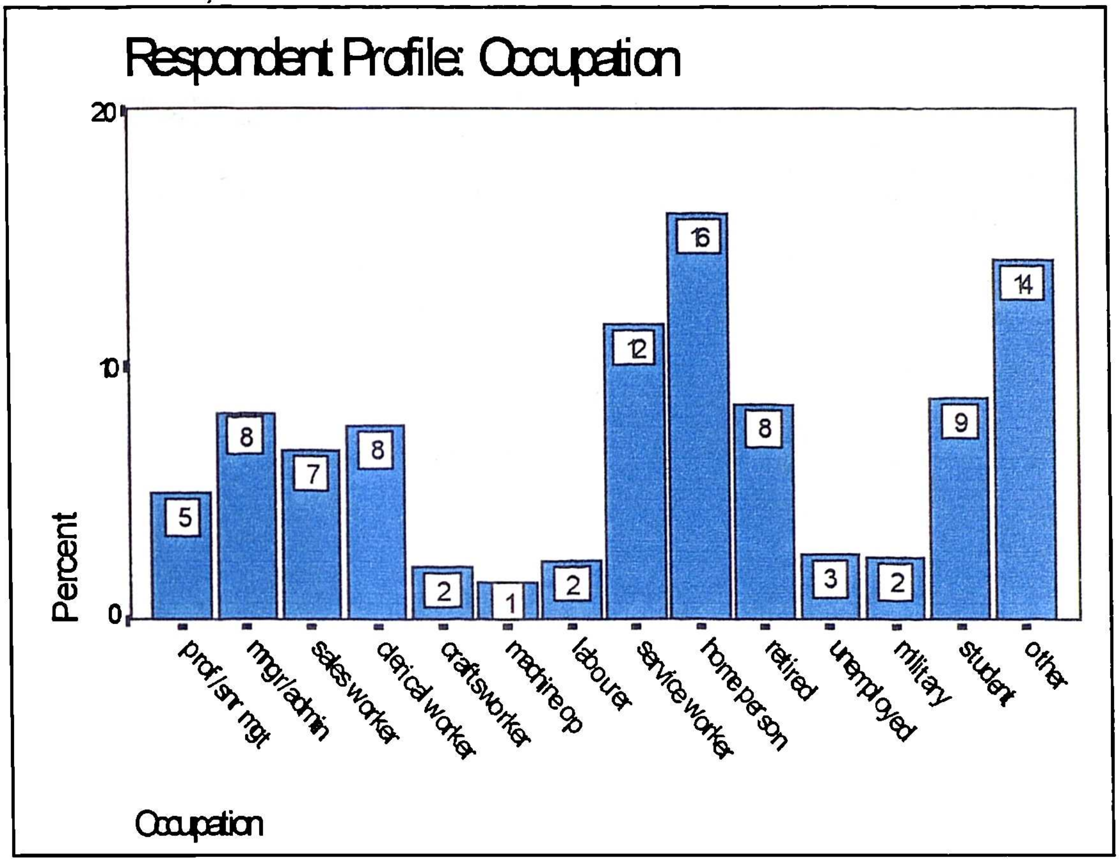


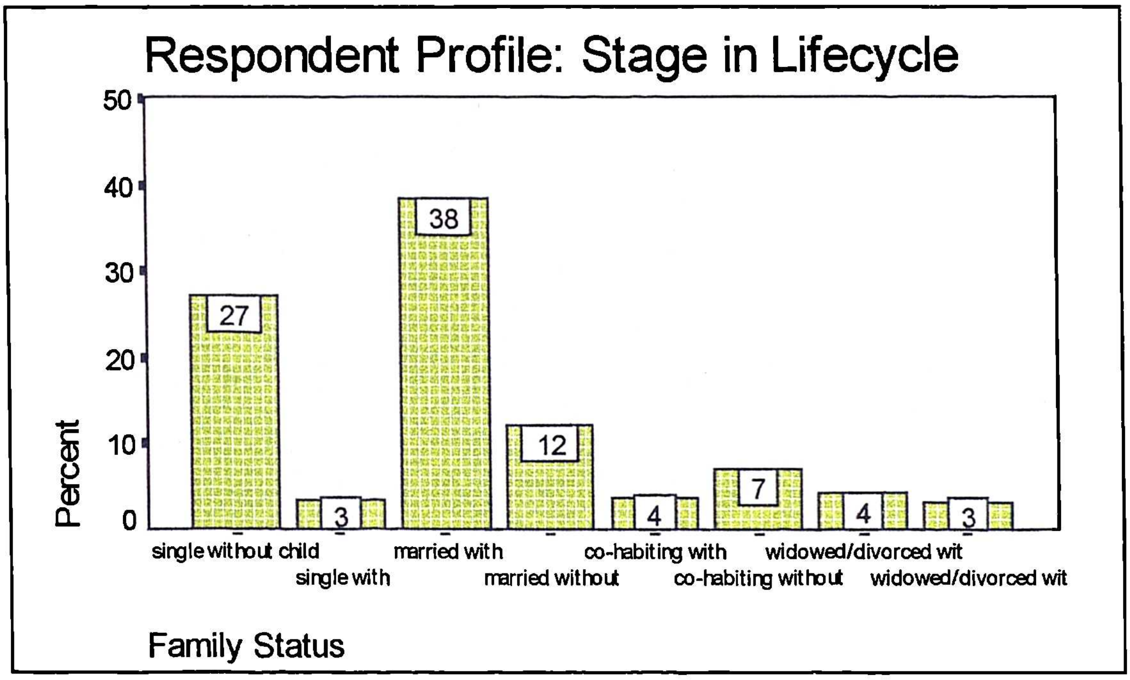
Asda, Leicester, UK

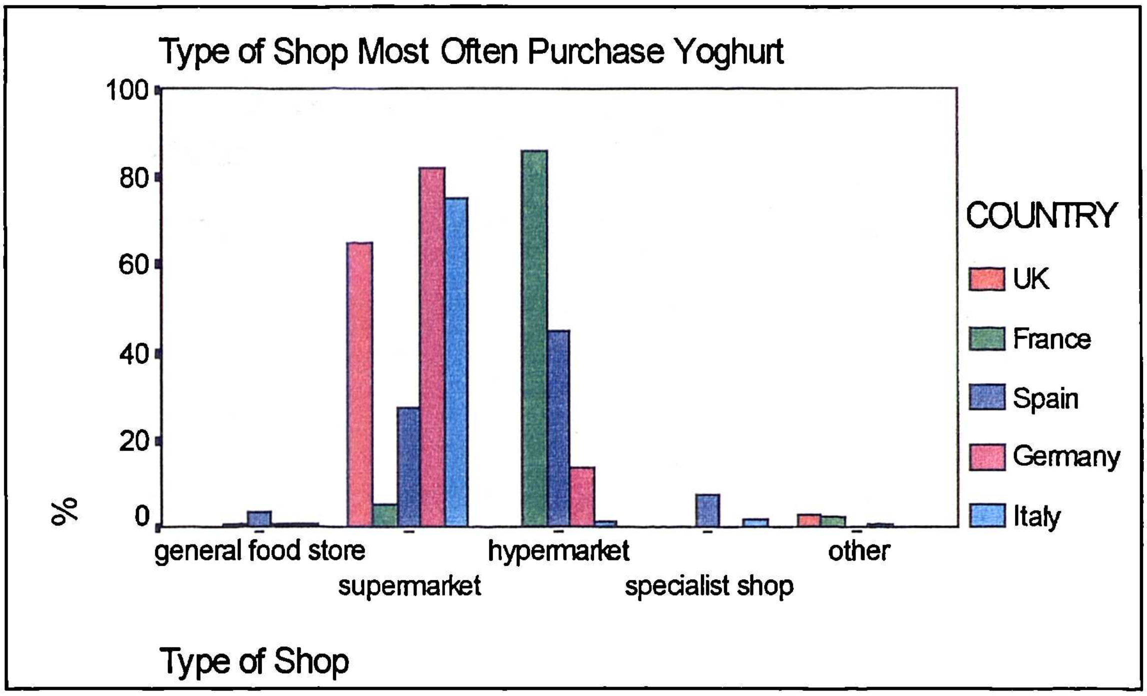


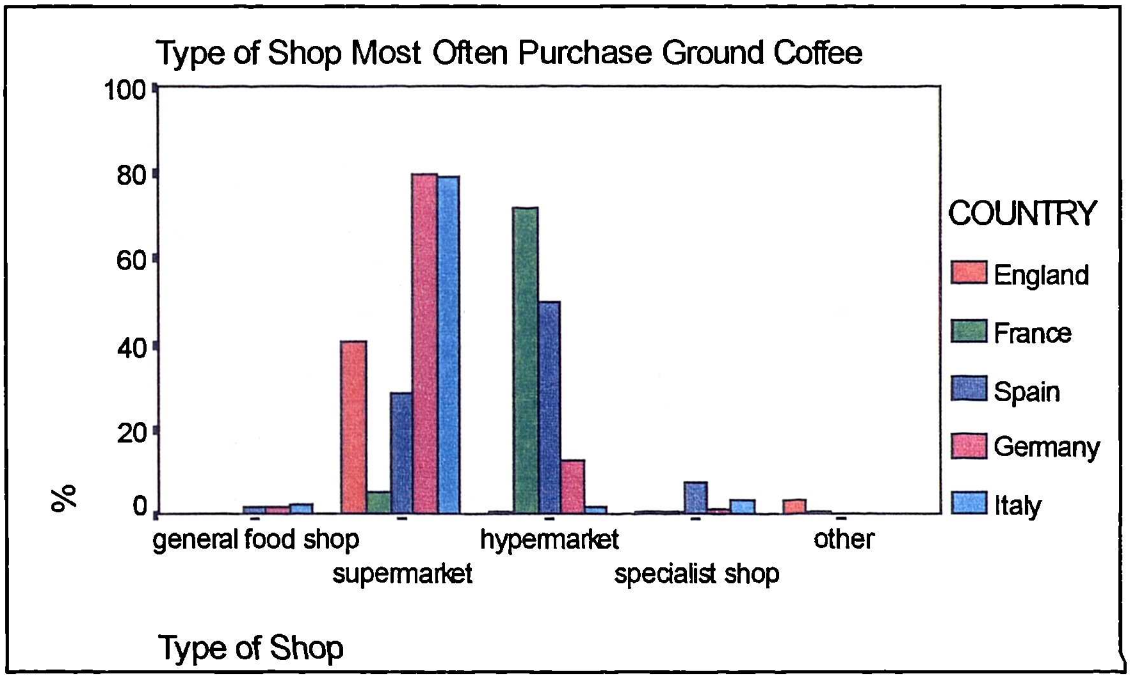

Respondent Profile: Income
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
Percent
53
33
10
> £15,000
£15,000 - 29,999
£30,000 - 44,999
£45,000 - 59,999
< £60,000
Annual Household Income


Respondent Profile: Education
40
30
20
10
0
Percent
14
13
8
22
31
9
3
<15
16
17
18
degree/prof.qual
trade/craft
other
School Leaving Age Or Quals.

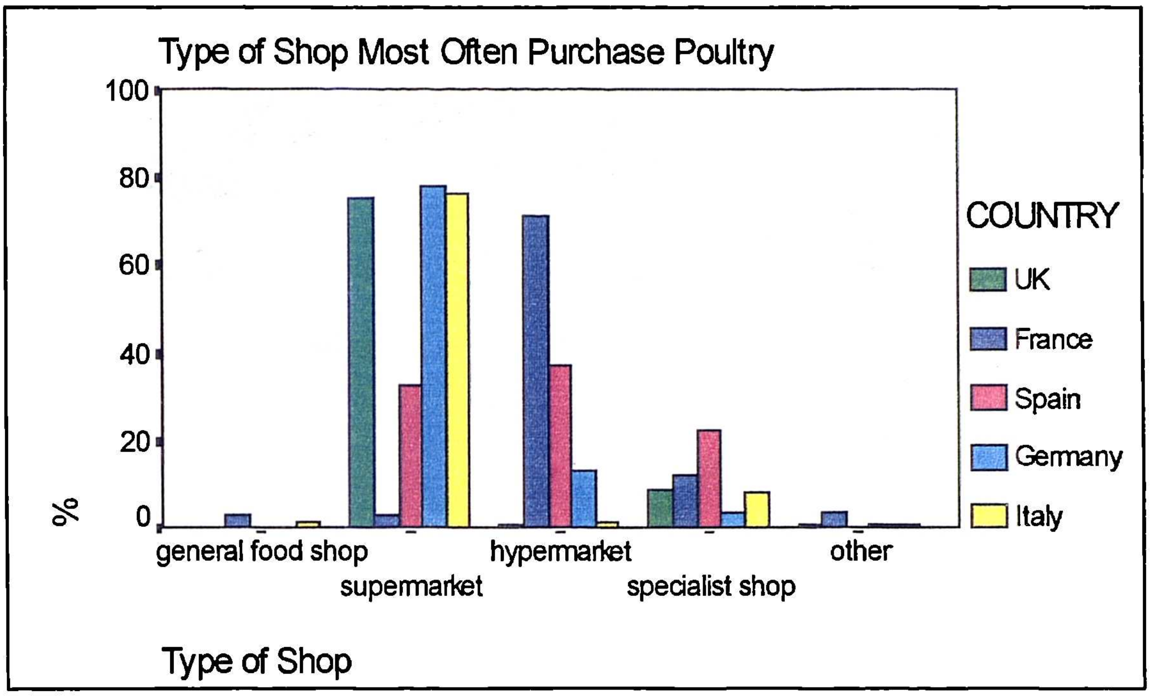

Respondent Profile: Occupation
Percent
20
10
0
5
8
7
8
2
1
2
12
16
8
3
2
9
14
prof/snr mgt
mgr/admin
sales worker
clerical worker
craftsworker
machine op
labourer
service worker
home person
retired
unemployed
military
student
other
Occupation

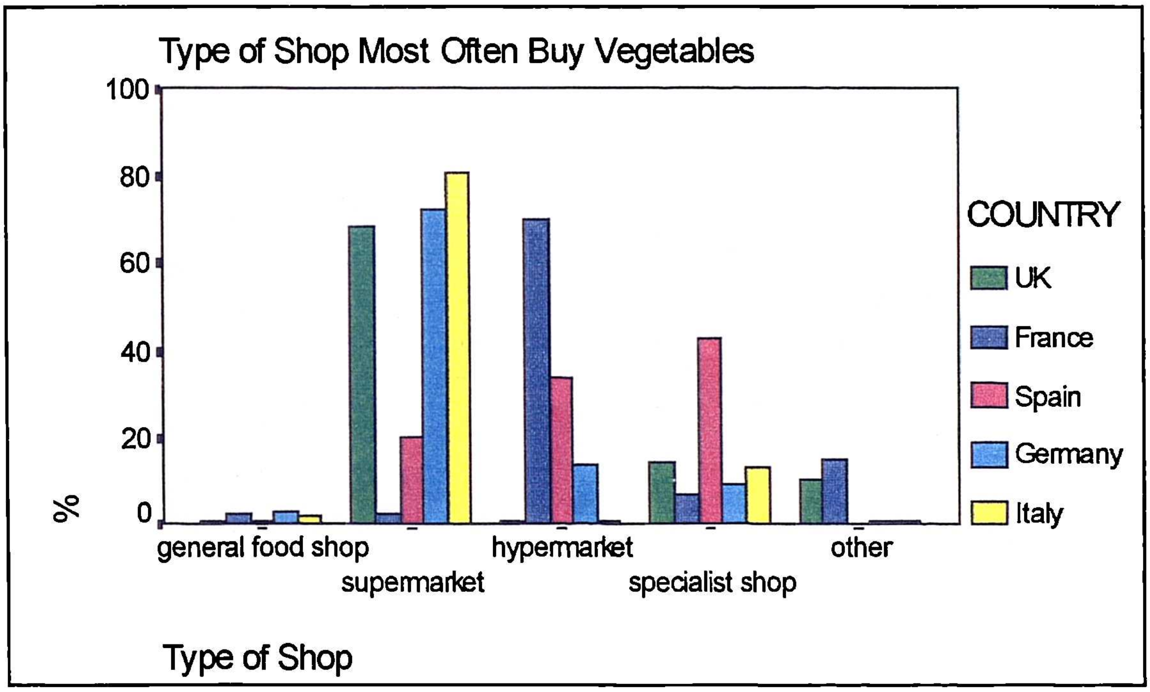

Respondent Profile: Stage in Lifecycle
Percent
50
40
30
20
10
0
27
3
38
12
4
7
4
3
single without child
single with
married with
married without
co-habiting with
co-habiting without
widowed/divorced wit
widowed/divorced wit
Family Status

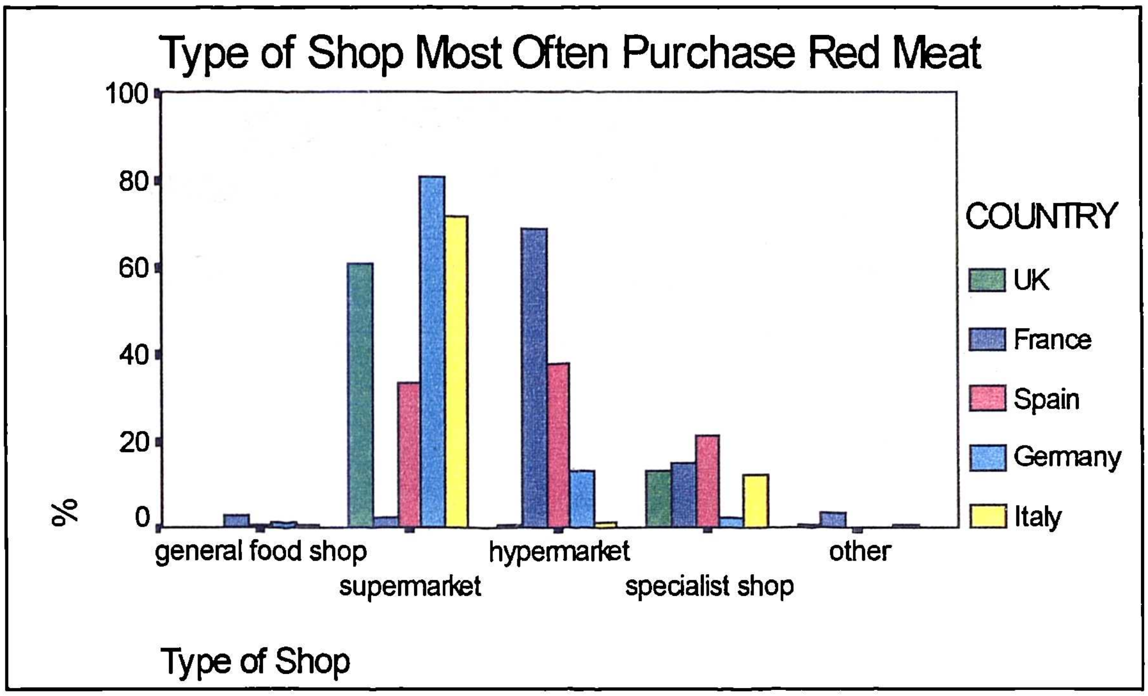

Type of Shop Most Often Purchase Yoghurt
100
80
60
40
20
0
%
general food store
supermarket
hypermarket
specialist shop
other
Type of Shop
COUNTRY
UK
France
Spain
Germany
Italy


Type of Shop Most Often Purchase Ground Coffee
100
80
60
40
20
0
%
general food shop
supermarket
hypermarket
specialist shop
other
Type of Shop
COUNTRY
England
France
Spain
Germany
Italy


Type of Shop Most Often Purchase Frozen Ready-Made Foods
100
80
60
40
20
0
%
general food shop
supermarket
hypermarket
specialist shop
other
COUNTRY
England
France
Spain
Germany
Italy
Type of Shop


Type of Shop Most Often Purchase Poultry
100
80
60
40
20
0
%
general food shop
supermarket
hypermarket
specialist shop
other
Type of Shop
COUNTRY
UK
France
Spain
Germany
Italy


Type of Shop Most Often Buy Vegetables
100
80
60
40
20
0
%
general food shop
supermarket
hypermarket
specialist shop
other
Type of Shop
COUNTRY
UK
France
Spain
Germany
Italy


Type of Shop Most Often Purchase Red Meat
100
80
60
40
20
0
%
general food shop
supermarket
hypermarket
specialist shop
other
Type of Shop
COUNTRY
UK
France
Spain
Germany
Italy

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of COUNTRY Country

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	UK	-.0365	.4326	318.3815	1702
2	France	-.1610	.4353	373.7223	1973
3	Spain	.1767	.3408	250.8991	2161
4	Germany	.1744	.4382	401.8671	2094
5	Italy	-.2915	.7244	660.6603	1260
Within Groups Total		-3.711E-17	.4673	2005.5304	9190

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	291.7196	4	72.9299	334.0070	.0000
Within Groups	2005.5304	9185	.2183		

Eta = .3564 Eta Squared = .1270

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of ETHNIC Ethnic Background

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	White	.0076	.4998	2136.9149	8556
2	Black African	-.1633	.4448	18.9917	97
3	Black Caribbean	-.0428	.4927	31.3133	130
4	Black Other	-.0142	.7913	10.6434	18
5	Arab	.0279	.5508	18.8108	63
6	Indian	-.1089	.4681	11.1731	52
7	Pakistani	-.2433	.6225	3.8745	11
8	Bangladeshi	.1676	.3249	.1056	2
10	Chinese	-.2243	.6237	9.3365	25
11	Slavic	.0993	.4348	3.7802	21
12	Turkish	.0619	.4901	4.3238	19
13	Other	-.1937	.4390	33.3415	174
Within Groups Total		9.985E-05	.4993	2282.6093	9168

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12.7573	11	1.1598	4.6520	.0000
Within Groups	2282.6093	9156	.2493		

Eta = .0746 Eta Squared = .0056

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of AGE Age of Respondent

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	15-19	.0450	.5300	194.0964	692
2	20-29	.0427	.4998	520.4981	2085
3	30-39	.0348	.4691	421.7975	1918
4	40-49	-.0205	.4675	374.1403	1713
5	50-59	-.0331	.5113	353.9350	1355
6	60+	-.0746	.5416	410.6182	1401
Within Groups Total		.0003	.4984	2275.0856	9164

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17.5284	5	3.5057	14.1116	.0000
Within Groups	2275.0856	9158	.2484		

Eta = .0874 Eta Squared = .0076

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of CITY City - Geographic Region

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	London	.0130	.4821	187.8198	809
2	Leicester	-.0808	.3787	128.5222	897
4	Paris	-.2159	.4283	159.5879	871
5	Lyon	-.1177	.4362	209.4427	1102
7	Madrid	.1196	.3745	141.2693	1008
8	Seville	.2267	.2997	103.4656	1153
10	West Berlin	.2489	.4786	211.3950	924
11	East Berlin	.1156	.3938	181.2925	1170
14	Milan	-.2926	.7244	658.5494	1256
Within Groups Total		-1.856E-17	.4646	1981.3444	9190

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	315.9056	8	39.4882	182.9773	.0000
Within Groups	1981.3444	9181	.2158		

Eta = .3708 Eta Squared = .1375

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of INCOME Income

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	>£15,000	.0054	.5266	1262.0271	4552
2	£15,000-29,999	-.0005	.4832	646.9067	2772
3	£30,000-44,999	-.0189	.4882	202.1466	849
4	£45,000-59,999	.0701	.3883	38.2946	255
5	< £60,000	-.0879	.4137	15.4043	91
Within Groups Total		.0020	.5042	2164.7793	8519

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.3597	4	.5899	2.3202	.0548
Within Groups	2164.7793	8514	.2543		

Eta = .0330 Eta Squared = .0011

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of OCC Occupation

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	Prof/snr mgt	.0067	.4625	105.8960	496
2	mngr/admin	.0058	.4477	397.2908	1983
3	sales worker	.0081	.5433	186.8261	634
4	clerical worker	-.0241	.5239	193.7652	707
5	craftsworker	.0302	.5245	54.4666	199
6	machine op	-.0578	.4554	27.7959	135
7	labourer	.1406	.5285	56.4310	203
8	service worker	.0258	.4844	248.9973	1062
9	home person	-.2585	.7075	118.6403	238
10	pensioner	.0694	.4889	349.6762	1464
11		-.1107	.5186	192.7976	718
12	military	-.1532	.4445	43.4646	221
13	student	-.0306	.6057	89.1632	244
14	other	.0473	.4582	159.5269	761
Within Groups Total		.0014	.4958	2224.7376	9065

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	44.7698	13	3.4438	14.0107	.0000
Within Groups	2224.7376	9051	.2458		

Eta = .1405 Eta Squared = .0197

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of SCHOOL Education

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	<15	-.1724	.5751	427.5813	1294
2	16	-.0559	.5200	318.7928	1180
3	17	.0007	.5011	179.5317	716
4	18	.0285	.4914	472.5540	1958
5	degree or profession	.0466	.4793	654.9702	2852
6	trade or craft qual	.1095	.3687	107.5531	792
7	postgraduate qual	-.0013	.4094	47.2648	283
Within Groups Total		-.0015	.4935	2208.2480	9075

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	59.4088	6	9.9015	40.6596	.0000
Within Groups	2208.2480	9068	.2435		

Eta = .1619 Eta Squared = .0262

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of SEX Gender

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	Male	.0464	.5001	696.1566	2784
2	Female	-.0211	.4981	1578.9406	6364
Within Groups Total		-.0006	.4988	2275.0972	9148

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.8194	1	8.8194	35.4546	.0000
Within Groups	2275.0972	9146	.2488		

Eta = .0621 Eta Squared = .0039

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of STATUS Stage in Family Lifecycle

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	single without child	.0400	.5350	708.1481	2475
2	single with	-.0331	.4577	59.9128	287
3	married with	-.0274	.4690	776.5705	3532
4	married without	-.0467	.5348	311.1474	1089
5	co-habiting with	.0515	.4681	74.9266	343
6	co-habiting without	.1003	.4527	136.0910	665
7	widowed/divorced wit	.0525	.5030	97.9051	388
8	widowed/divorced wit	-.1286	.5458	82.2118	277
Within Groups Total		.0012	.4983	2246.9133	9056

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	22.5232	7	3.2176	12.9568	.0000
Within Groups	2246.9133	9048	.2483		

Eta = .0996 Eta Squared = .0099

```
                         - - - - -  O N E W A Y  - - - - -

          Variable  AVFAC      Average Factor Involvement Score
       By Variable  COUNTRY    Country

    Multiple Range Tests:  Duncan test with significance level .05

    The difference between two means is significant if
      MEAN(J)-MEAN(I)  >= .3304 * RANGE * SQRT(1/N(I) + 1/N(J))
      with the following value(s) for RANGE:

     Step       2      3      4      5
     RANGE    2.78   2.92   3.01   3.08

       (*) Indicates significant differences which are shown in the lower triangle

                                G G G G G
                                r r r r r
                                p p p p p

                                5 2 1 4 3
         Mean       COUNTRY

         -.2915     Grp 5
         -.1610     Grp 2       *
         -.0365     Grp 1       * *
           .1744    Grp 4       * * *
           .1767    Grp 3       * * *


                         - - - - -  O N E W A Y  - - - - -

          Variable  AVFAC      Average Factor Involvement Score
       By Variable  COUNTRY    Country

    Multiple Range Tests:  Tukey-HSD test with significance level .050

    The difference between two means is significant if
      MEAN(J)-MEAN(I)  >= .3304 * RANGE * SQRT(1/N(I) + 1/N(J))
      with the following value(s) for RANGE: 3.87

       (*) Indicates significant differences which are shown in the lower triangle

                                G G G G G
                                r r r r r
                                p p p p p

                                5 2 1 4 3
         Mean       COUNTRY

         -.2915     Grp 5
         -.1610     Grp 2       *
         -.0365     Grp 1       * *
           .1744    Grp 4       * * *
           .1767    Grp 3       * * *
```

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable FAC1_1 REGR factor score 1 for analysis 1
By levels of COUNTRY Country

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	UK	-.0084912	.9786268	1629.06529	1702
2	France	-.0655745	.9922738	1941.64550	1973
3	Spain	.0241184	.9771160	2062.27238	2161
4	Germany	.2313717	.9692279	1966.16977	2094
5	Italy	-.3117314	1.0337602	1345.44324	1260
Within Groups Total		9.278E-17	.9868265	8944.59618	9190

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	244.4038	4	61.1010	62.7432	.0000
Within Groups	8944.5962	9185	.9738		

Eta = .1631 Eta Squared = .0266

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable FAC2_1 REGR factor score 2 for analysis 1
By levels of COUNTRY Country

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	UK	-.1182003	.8336667	1182.19515	1702
2	France	-.3325425	.8425318	1399.84368	1973
3	Spain	.7587261	1.0898797	2565.72972	2161
4	Germany	.0674205	.6545010	896.581574	2094
5	Italy	-.7329382	.8787882	972.286402	1260
Within Groups Total		1.608E-16	.8740271	7016.63653	9190

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2172.3635	4	543.0909	710.9232	.0000
Within Groups	7016.6365	9185	.7639		

Eta = .4862 Eta Squared = .2364

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable FAC3_1 REGR factor score 3 for analysis 1
By levels of COUNTRY Country

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	UK	-.0810161	1.0440563	1854.18111	1702
2	France	-.1951328	1.1160198	2456.12623	1973
3	Spain	.1027830	.7482990	1209.49506	2161
4	Germany	.1926355	.6705399	941.062598	2094
5	Italy	-.0814336	1.4184051	2532.94801	1260
Within Groups Total		-9.278E-17	.9895377	8993.81301	9190

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	195.1870	4	48.7967	49.8340	.0000
Within Groups	8993.8130	9185	.9792		

Eta = .1457 Eta Squared = .0212

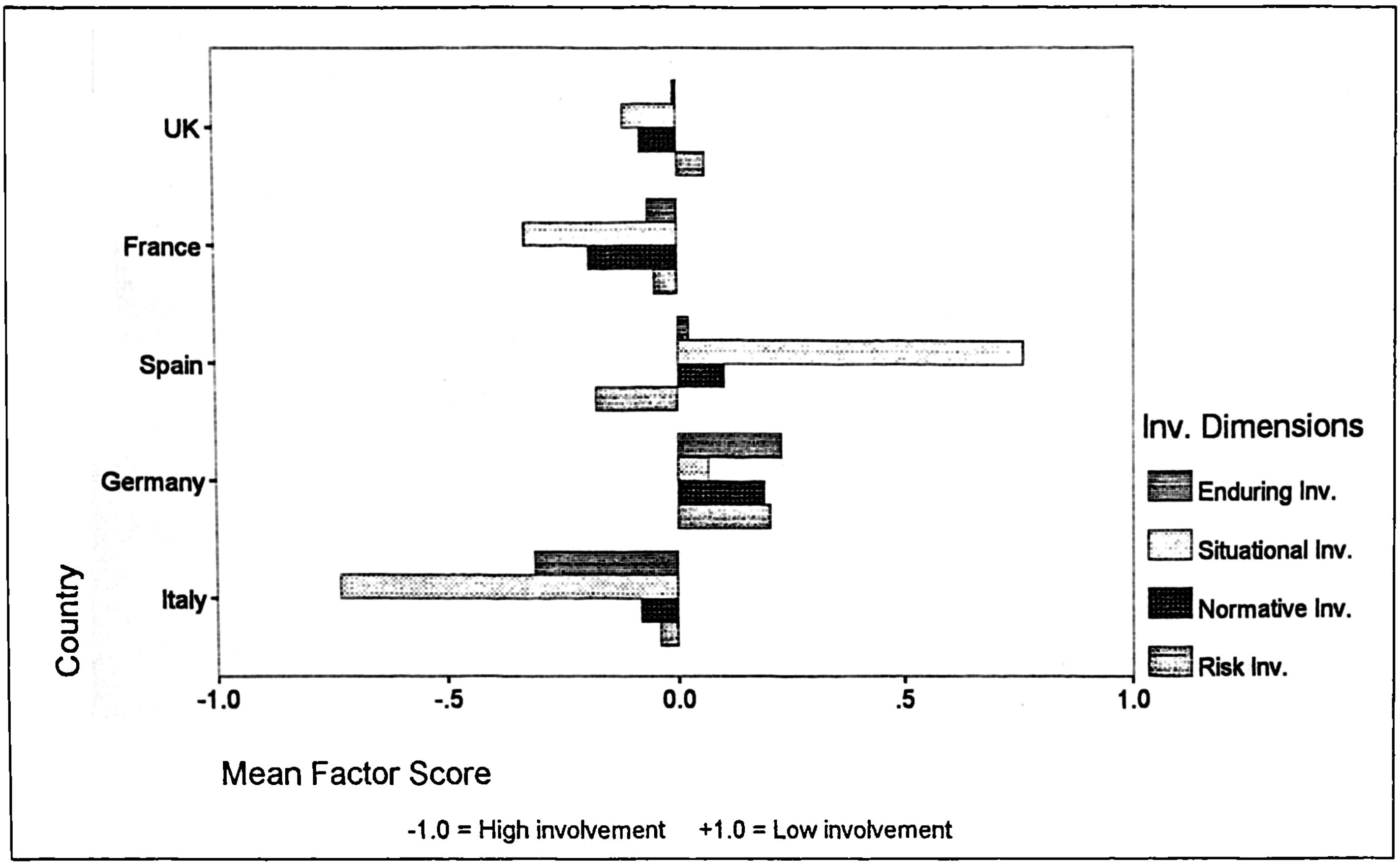
- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable FAC4_1 REGR factor score 4 for analysis 1
By levels of COUNTRY Country

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	UK	.0618292	1.0178276	1762.19023	1702
2	France	-.0509501	1.0333303	2105.64528	1973
3	Spain	-.1786276	.8893501	1708.43817	2161
4	Germany	.2061613	.9560614	1913.11368	2094
5	Italy	-.0399971	1.1016688	1528.01568	1260
Within Groups Total		1.686E-16	.9908346	9017.40305	9190

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	171.5969	4	42.8992	43.6966	.0000
Within Groups	9017.4031	9185	.9818		

Eta = .1367 Eta Squared = .0187


UK
France
Spain
Germany
Italy
Country
-1.0
-.5
0.0
.5
1.0
Mean Factor Score
Inv. Dimensions
Enduring Inv.
Situational Inv.
Normative Inv.
Risk Inv.
-1.0 = High involvement +1.0 = Low involvement

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- - - - - O N E W A Y - - - - -

    Variable  FAC1_1     REGR factor score   1 for analysis    1
 By Variable  COUNTRY    Country

Multiple Range Tests:  Modified LSD (Bonferroni) test with significance
                       level .05

The difference between two means is significant if
  MEAN(J)-MEAN(I)  >= .6978 * RANGE * SQRT(1/N(I) + 1/N(J))
  with the following value(s) for RANGE: 3.97

   (*) Indicates significant differences which are shown in the lower triangle

                          G G G G G
                          r r r r r
                          p p p p p

                          5 2 1 3 4
    Mean       COUNTRY

    -.3117     Grp 5
    -.0656     Grp 2      *
    -.0085     Grp 1      *
     .0241     Grp 3      * *
     .2314     Grp 4      * * * *
```

```
- - - - - O N E W A Y - - - - -

    Variable  FAC2_1     REGR factor score   2 for analysis    1
 By Variable  COUNTRY    Country

Multiple Range Tests:  Modified LSD (Bonferroni) test with significance
                       level .05

The difference between two means is significant if
  MEAN(J)-MEAN(I)  >= .6180 * RANGE * SQRT(1/N(I) + 1/N(J))
  with the following value(s) for RANGE: 3.97

   (*) Indicates significant differences which are shown in the lower triangle

                          G G G G G
                          r r r r r
                          p p p p p

                          5 2 1 4 3
    Mean       COUNTRY

    -.7329     Grp 5
    -.3325     Grp 2      *
    -.1182     Grp 1      * *
     .0674     Grp 4      * * *
     .7587     Grp 3      * * * *
```

```
- - - - -  O N E W A Y  - - - - -

      Variable  FAC3_1      REGR factor score   3 for analysis    1
   By Variable  COUNTRY     Country

Multiple Range Tests:  Modified LSD (Bonferroni) test with significance
                       level .05

The difference between two means is significant if
  MEAN(J)-MEAN(I)  >= .6997 * RANGE * SQRT(1/N(I) + 1/N(J))
  with the following value(s) for RANGE: 3.97

   (*) Indicates significant differences which are shown in the lower triangle

                          G G G G G
                          r r r r r
                          p p p p p

                          2 5 1 3 4
    Mean      COUNTRY

    -.1951    Grp 2
    -.0814    Grp 5       *
    -.0810    Grp 1       *
     .1028    Grp 3       * * *
     .1926    Grp 4       * * * *



- - - - -  O N E W A Y  - - - - -

      Variable  FAC4_1      REGR factor score   4 for analysis    1
   By Variable  COUNTRY     Country

Multiple Range Tests:  Modified LSD (Bonferroni) test with significance
                       level .05

The difference between two means is significant if
  MEAN(J)-MEAN(I)  >= .7006 * RANGE * SQRT(1/N(I) + 1/N(J))
  with the following value(s) for RANGE: 3.97

   (*) Indicates significant differences which are shown in the lower triangle

                          G G G G G
                          r r r r r
                          p p p p p

                          3 2 5 1 4
    Mean      COUNTRY

    -.1786    Grp 3
    -.0510    Grp 2       *
    -.0400    Grp 5       *
     .0618    Grp 1       * *
     .2062    Grp 4       * * * *
```

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of SEX Gender

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	Male	.0464	.5001	696.1566	2784
2	Female	-.0211	.4981	1578.9406	6364
Within Groups Total		-.0006	.4988	2275.0972	9148

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.8194	1	8.8194	35.4546	.0000
Within Groups	2275.0972	9146	.2488		

Eta = .0621 Eta Squared = .0039

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of STATUS Stage in Family Lifecycle

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	single without child	.0400	.5350	708.1481	2475
2	single with	-.0331	.4577	59.9128	287
3	married with	-.0274	.4690	776.5705	3532
4	married without	-.0467	.5348	311.1474	1089
5	co-habiting with	.0515	.4681	74.9266	343
6	co-habiting without	.1003	.4527	136.0910	665
7	widowed/divorced wit	.0525	.5030	97.9051	388
8	widowed/divorced wit	-.1286	.5458	82.2118	277
Within Groups Total		.0012	.4983	2246.9133	9056

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	22.5232	7	3.2176	12.9568	.0000
Within Groups	2246.9133	9048	.2483		

Eta = .0996 Eta Squared = .0099

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of QUAL

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
0		-.2429	.7452	186.0453	336
1		.1202	.5410	345.6002	1182
2		.0714	.5042	215.5479	849
3		-.1741	.6899	370.7754	780
4		.4599	.1480	.0657	4
Within Groups Total		-.0041	.5961	1118.0346	3151

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	65.6456	4	16.4114	46.1795	.0000
Within Groups	1118.0346	3146	.3554		

Eta = .2355 Eta Squared = .0555

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of SCHOOL Education

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	<15	-.1724	.5751	427.5813	1294
2	16	-.0559	.5200	318.7928	1180
3	17	.0007	.5011	179.5317	716
4	18	.0285	.4914	472.5540	1958
5	degree or profession	.0466	.4793	654.9702	2852
6	trade or craft qual	.1095	.3687	107.5531	792
7	postgraduate qual	-.0013	.4094	47.2648	283
Within Groups Total		-.0015	.4935	2208.2480	9075

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	59.4088	6	9.9015	40.6596	.0000
Within Groups	2208.2480	9068	.2435		

Eta = .1619 Eta Squared = .0262

\- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of ETHNIC Ethnic Background

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	White	.0076	.4998	2136.9149	8556
2	Black African	-.1633	.4448	18.9917	97
3	Black Caribbean	-.0428	.4927	31.3133	130
4	Black Other	-.0142	.7913	10.6434	18
5	Arab	.0279	.5508	18.8108	63
6	Indian	-.1089	.4681	11.1731	52
7	Pakistani	-.2433	.6225	3.8745	11
8	Bangladeshi	.1676	.3249	.1056	2
10	Slavic	-.2243	.6237	9.3365	25
11	Turkish	.0993	.4348	3.7802	21
12	Other	.0619	.4901	4.3238	19
13		-.1937	.4390	33.3415	174
Within Groups Total		9.985E-05	.4993	2282.6093	9168

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12.7573	11	1.1598	4.6520	.0000
Within Groups	2282.6093	9156	.2493		

Eta = .0746 Eta Squared = .0056

\- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of INCOME_ Income

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	>£15,000	.0054	.5266	1262.0271	4552
2	£15,000-29,999	-.0005	.4832	646.9067	2772
3	£30,000-44,999	-.0189	.4882	202.1466	849
4	£45,000-59,999	.0701	.3883	38.2946	255
5	< £60,000	-.0879	.4137	15.4043	91
Within Groups Total		.0020	.5042	2164.7793	8519

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.3597	4	.5899	2.3202	.0548
Within Groups	2164.7793	8514	.2543		

Eta = .0330 Eta Squared = .0011

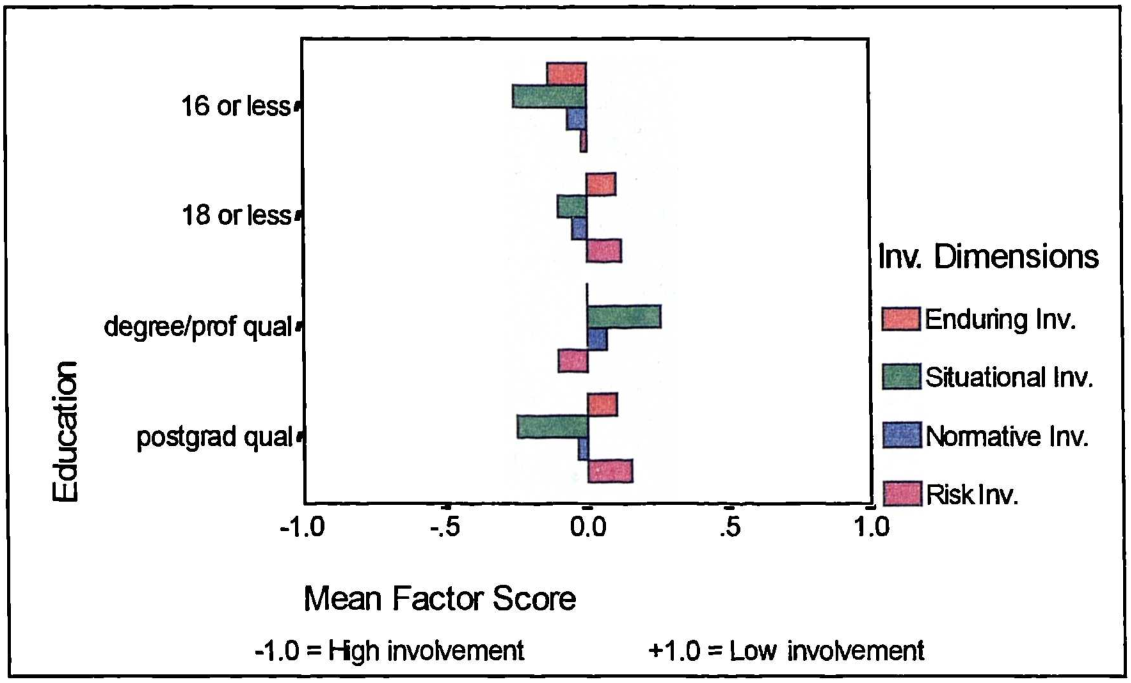
- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFAC Average Factor Involvement Score
By levels of OCC Occupation

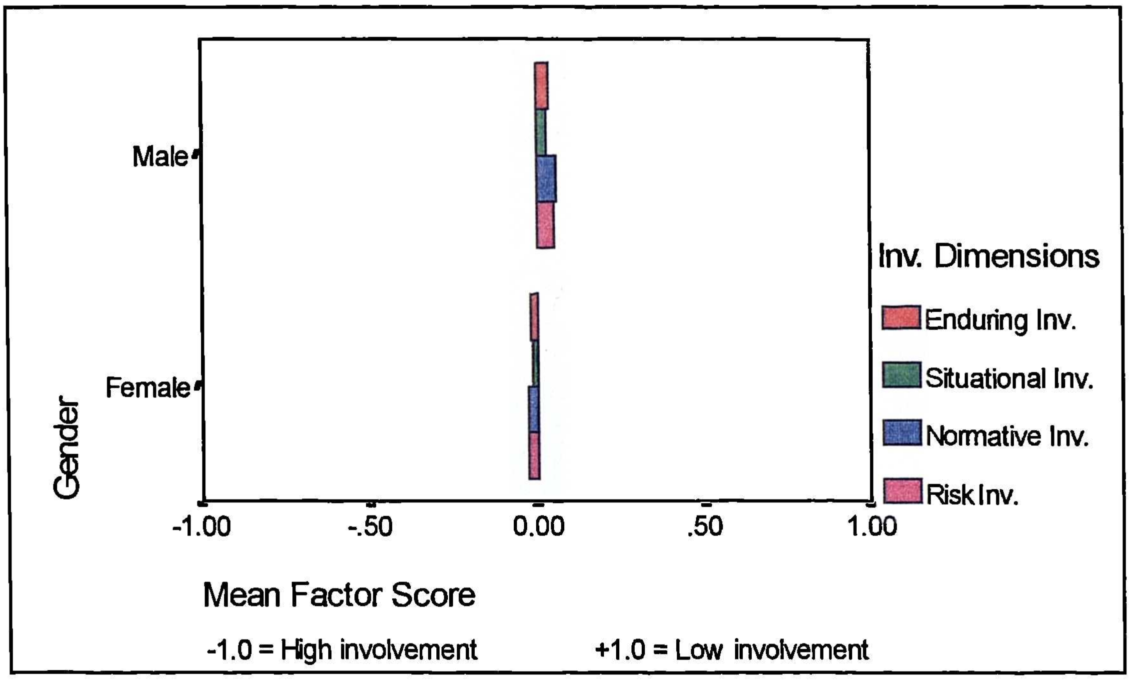
Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	Prof/snr mgt	.0067	.4625	105.8960	496
2	mngr/admin	.0058	.4477	397.2908	1983
3	sales worker	.0081	.5433	186.8261	634
4	clerical worker	-.0241	.5239	193.7652	707
5	craftsworker	.0302	.5245	54.4666	199
6	machine op	-.0578	.4554	27.7959	135
7	labourer	.1406	.5285	56.4310	203
8	service worker	.0258	.4844	248.9973	1062
9	home person	-.2585	.7075	118.6403	238
10	pensioner	.0694	.4889	349.6762	1464
11		-.1107	.5186	192.7976	718
12	military	-.1532	.4445	43.4646	221
13	student	-.0306	.6057	89.1632	244
14	other	.0473	.4582	159.5269	761
Within Groups Total		.0014	.4958	2224.7376	9065

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	44.7698	13	3.4438	14.0107	.0000
Within Groups	2224.7376	9051	.2458		

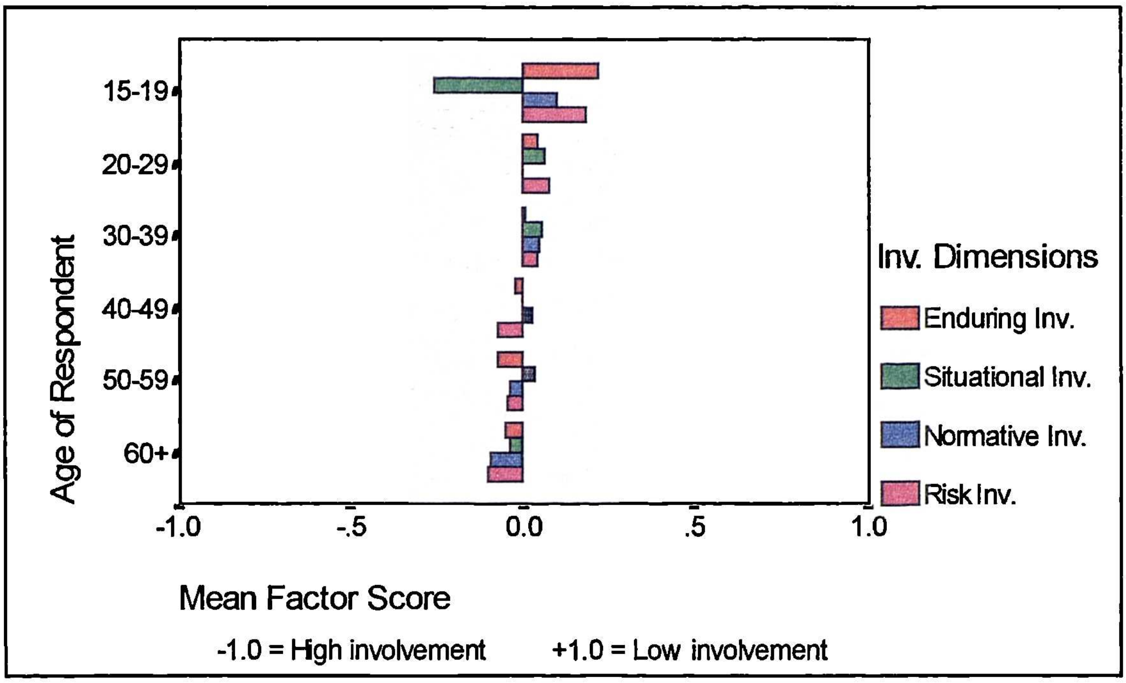
Eta = .1405 Eta Squared = .0197



16 or less
18 or less
degree/prof qual
postgrad qual
Education
Inv. Dimensions
Enduring Inv.
Situational Inv.
Normative Inv.
Risk Inv.
-1.0
-.5
0.0
.5
1.0
Mean Factor Score
-1.0 = High involvement
+1.0 = Low involvement



Male
Female
Gender
Inv. Dimensions
Enduring Inv.
Situational Inv.
Normative Inv.
Risk Inv.
-1.00
-.50
0.00
.50
1.00
Mean Factor Score
-1.0 = High involvement
+1.0 = Low involvement


15-19
20-29
30-39
40-49
50-59
60+
Age of Respondent
-1.0
-.5
0.0
.5
1.0
Mean Factor Score
-1.0 = High involvement
+1.0 = Low involvement
Inv. Dimensions
Enduring Inv.
Situational Inv.
Normative Inv.
Risk Inv.

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFRUIT Average Factor Fruit Score
By levels of COUNTRY

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
0		-.8193	.	.0000	1
1	England	-.0278	.4629	62.3557	292
2	France	-.1838	.4607	55.3971	262
3	Spain	.3703	.3728	41.6856	301
4	Germany	.0971	.3489	35.5489	293
5	Italy	-.5310	.4632	33.2513	156
Within Groups Total		-5.445E-17	.4192	228.2386	1305

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	97.7614	5	19.5523	111.2801	.0000
Within Groups	228.2386	1299	.1757		

Eta = .5476 Eta Squared = .2999

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVMEAT Average Factor Red Meat Score
By levels of COUNTRY

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
0		-.7478	.	.0000	1
1	England	.0262	.4133	38.4259	226
2	France	-.1420	.4547	51.6896	251
3	Spain	.1635	.3781	41.5914	292
4	Germany	.2336	.4046	47.9728	294
5	Italy	-.5508	.5572	48.1205	156
Within Groups Total		-2.330E-17	.4332	227.8002	1220

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	76.9498	5	15.3900	82.0166	.0000
Within Groups	227.8002	1214	.1876		

Eta = .5025 Eta Squared = .2525

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVPOUL Average Factor Poultry Score
By levels of COUNTRY

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
0		-.7103	.	.0000	1
1	England	-.0272	.4269	47.3934	261
2	France	-.1990	.4152	42.0565	245
3	Spain	.2584	.3364	31.8028	282
4	Germany	.2216	.3997	46.8179	294
5	Italy	-.5220	.5970	55.2480	156
Within Groups Total		.0000	.4256	223.3186	1239

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	86.1814	5	17.2363	95.1660	.0000
Within Groups	223.3186	1233	.1811		

Eta = .5277 Eta Squared = .2785

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVVEG Average Factor Veg Score
By levels of COUNTRY

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
0		-.8621	.	.0000	1
1	England	-.0608	.4568	59.4659	286
2	France	-.1580	.4398	49.9058	259
3	Spain	.2745	.3513	36.5356	297
4	Germany	.2268	.4375	55.8937	293
5	Italy	-.5691	.3993	24.7128	156
Within Groups Total		-5.500E-17	.4197	226.5138	1292

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	96.2362	5	19.2472	109.2735	.0000
Within Groups	226.5138	1286	.1761		

Eta = .5461 Eta Squared = .2982

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVCHEESE Mean Factor Cheese Score
By levels of COUNTRY

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	England	.0613	.4901	55.7177	233
2	France	-.1492	.4703	58.8232	267
3	Spain	.1769	.3893	41.8321	277
4	Germany	.1396	.4798	48.3338	211
5	Italy	-.3349	.5308	44.2283	158
Within Groups Total		1.240E-17	.4671	248.9351	1146

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	37.3149	4	9.3287	42.7585	.0000
Within Groups	248.9351	1141	.2182		

Eta = .3611 Eta Squared = .1304

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVCOFFEE Mean Factor Coffee Score
By levels of COUNTRY

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	England	-.0425	.4766	24.0799	107
2	France	-.1897	.4272	41.2437	227
3	Spain	.1773	.3117	25.2542	261
4	Germany	.2086	.5122	64.7937	248
5	Italy	-.3191	.5710	51.1819	158
Within Groups Total		7.808E-17	.4554	206.5534	1001

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	43.4466	4	10.8616	52.3748	.0000
Within Groups	206.5534	996	.2074		

Eta = .4169 Eta Squared = .1738

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVFROZ Mean Factor Frozen Food Score
By levels of COUNTRY

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	England	-.2254	.3904	15.8507	105
2	France	-.2319	.4046	32.5706	200
3	Spain	.0287	.3091	19.1082	201
4	Germany	.1854	.3589	30.0067	234
5	Italy	.1322	.7967	99.6615	158
Within Groups Total		.0000	.4699	197.1977	898

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	27.0523	4	6.7631	30.6262	.0000
Within Groups	197.1977	893	.2208		

Eta = .3473 Eta Squared = .1206

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable AVYOG Mean Factor Yoghurt Score
By levels of COUNTRY

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1	England	- .0800	.4464	38.0603	192
2	France	-.1815	.4617	55.6301	262
3	Spain	.1332	.3135	24.4683	250
4	Germany	.0743	.3940	35.7102	231
5	Italy	-.1156	.8039	101.4518	158
Within Groups Total		-1.625E-17	.4844	255.3207	1093

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17.6793	4	4.4198	18.8342	.0000
Within Groups	255.3207	1088	.2347		

Eta = .2545 Eta Squared = .0648

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable EATD Average Buy Yoghurt / Fruit Per Week
By levels of AVYOG Mean Factor Yoghurt Score

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1.00	High Inv	2.5451	1.3018	899.9173	532
2.00	Low Inv	2.0089	1.3764	1060.9554	561
Within Groups Total		2.2699	1.3406	1960.8727	1093

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	78.5070	1	78.5070	43.6801	.0000
Within Groups	1960.8727	1091	1.7973		

Eta = .1962 Eta Squared = .0385

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable EATC Average Buy Coffee / Vegetables Per Week
By levels of AVCOFFEE Mean Factor Coffee Score

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1.00	High Inv	1.4980	.8994	408.4980	506
2.00	Low Inv	1.2465	.9458	441.9313	495
Within Groups Total		1.3736	.9226	850.4293	1001

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	15.8344	1	15.8344	18.6007	.0000
Within Groups	850.4293	999	.8513		

Eta = .1352 Eta Squared = .0183

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable EATB Average Buy Frozen Meals / Poultry Per W
By levels of AVFROZ Mean Factor Frozen Food Score

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1.00	High Inv	1.3519	.9371	378.5185	432
2.00	Low Inv	1.1487	.8579	340.7392	464
Within Groups Total		1.2467	.8970	719.2577	896

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9.2322	1	9.2322	11.4752	.0007
Within Groups	719.2577	894	.8045		

Eta = .1126 Eta Squared = .0127

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable EATA Average Buy Cheese / Red Meat Per Week
By levels of AVCHEESE Mean Factor Cheese Score

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1.00	High Inv	1.7342	.9548	516.8574	568
2.00	Low Inv	1.5087	1.0470	632.4567	578
Within Groups Total		1.6204	1.0023	1149.3141	1146

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14.5681	1	14.5681	14.5007	.0001
Within Groups	1149.3141	1144	1.0046		

Eta = .1119 Eta Squared = .0125

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable EATC Average Buy Coffee / Vegetables Per Week
By levels of AVVEG Average Factor Veg Score

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1.00	High Inv	1.7684	.9536	592.0291	652
2.00	Low Inv	1.4022	.8110	419.6369	639
Within Groups Total		1.5871	.8859	1011.6661	1291

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	43.2805	1	43.2805	55.1452	.0000
Within Groups	1011.6661	1289	.7848		

Eta = .2025 Eta Squared = .0410

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable EATB Average Buy Frozen Meals / Poultry Per W
By levels of AVPOUL Average Factor Poultry Score

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1.00	High Inv	1.2366	.7049	295.6426	596
2.00	Low Inv	1.0389	.7283	340.0265	642
Within Groups Total		1.1341	.7171	635.6691	1238

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12.0724	1	12.0724	23.4737	.0000
Within Groups	635.6691	1236	.5143		

Eta = .1365 Eta Squared = .0186

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable EATA Average Buy Cheese / Red Meat Per Week
By levels of AVMEAT Average Factor Red Meat Score

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1.00	High Inv	1.2391	.6979	290.8043	598
2.00	Low Inv	1.0821	.7349	334.8116	621
Within Groups Total		1.1591	.7170	625.6159	1219

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.5096	1	7.5096	14.6082	.0001
Within Groups	625.6159	1217	.5141		

Eta = .1089 Eta Squared = .0119

- - Analysis of Variance - -

Dependent Variable EATD Average Buy Yoghurt / Fruit Per Week
By levels of AVFRUIT Average Factor Fruit Score

Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Sum of Sq	Cases
1.00	High Inv	1.8912	.9764	603.4905	634
2.00	Low Inv	1.4567	.8920	532.2448	670
Within Groups Total		1.6679	.9340	1135.7353	1304

Source	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	61.4848	1	61.4848	70.4858	.0000
Within Groups	1135.7353	1302	.8723		

Eta = .2266 Eta Squared = .0514

```
TITLE "LISREL SEM OF ECONOMIC STATUS, INVOLVEMENT & PURCHASE: MODEL 1 -
RISK AND NORMATIVE INVOLVEMENT INFLUENCE ENDURING AND SITUATIONAL INVOLVEMENT".

PRELIS
/ VARIABLES=Y9 Y10 Y11 Y12 Y7 Y8 Y3 Y1 Y2 Y4 Y5 Y6 total Y13 INCOME EDUC
/ MATRIX=OUT ('C:FINALCOR.SAV').

GET FILE='C:FINALCOR.SAV'.

LISREL
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/ MO NY=14 NX=2 NE=5 NK=1 BE=FU GA=FU
/ PA LX
/ 0
/ 1
/ PA LY
/ 0 0 0 0 0
/ 1 0 0 0 0
/ 1 0 0 0 0
/ 1 0 0 0 0
/ 0 0 0 0 0
/ 0 1 0 0 0
/ 0 0 0 0 0
/ 0 0 1 0 0
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/ 0 0 0 1 0
/ 0 0 0 0 0
/ 0 0 0 0 1
/ PA BE
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/ 0 0 0 0 0
/ 1 1 0 0 0
/ 1 1 1 0 0
/ 1 1 1 1 0
/ PA GA
/ 1
/ 1
/ 0
/ 0
/ 0
/ PA TD
/ 1 1
/ PA TE
/ 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
/ PA PHI
/ 1
/ PA PSI
/ 1
/ 0 1
/ 0 0 1
/ 0 0 0 1
/ 0 0 0 0 1
/ ST .5 ALL
/ VA 1.0 LX (1,1) LY (1,1) LY (5,2) LY (7,3) LY (10,4) LY (13,5)
/ OU RO AD=OFF MI SE TV RS EF SS SC TO .
```

```
TITLE "LISREL SEM OF ECONOMIC STATUS, INVOLVEMENT & PURCHASE: MODEL 2 -
DIMENSIONS OF INVOLVEMENT DO NOT CORRELATE".

PRELIS
/ VARIABLES=Y9 Y10 Y11 Y12 Y7 Y8 Y3 Y1 Y2 Y4 Y5 Y6 total Y13 INCOME EDUC
/ MATRIX=OUT ('a:FINALCOR.SAV').

GET FILE='a:FINALCOR.SAV'.

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/ 1
/ PA LY
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/ 0 0 0 0 0
/ 0 0 0 0 1
/ PA BE
/ 0 0 0 0 0
/ 0 0 0 0 0
/ 0 0 0 0 0
/ 0 0 0 0 0
/ 1 1 1 1 0
/ PA GA
/ 1
/ 1
/ 1
/ 1
/ 0
/ PA TD
/ 1 1
/ PA TE
/ 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
/ PA PHI
/ 1
/ PA PSI
/ 1
/ 0 1
/ 0 0 1
/ 0 0 0 1
/ 0 0 0 0 1
/ ST .5 ALL
/ VA 1.0 LX (1,1) LY (1,1) LY (5,2) LY (7,3) LY (10,4) LY (13,5)
/ OU RO AD=OFF MI SE TV RS EF SS SC TO .
```

```
TITLE 'MULTIGROUP ANALYSIS: TESTING THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN COUNTRY GAMMA MATRICES'.
GET FILE='C:\AMANDA BRODERICK\PHD_STRUCSEM.SAV'.
SORT CASES BY X2.
SPLIT FILE BY X2.

PRELIS
/ VARIABLES=Y9 Y10 Y11 Y12 Y7 Y8 Y3 Y1 Y2 Y4 Y5 Y6 total Y13 INCOME EDUC
/ MATRIX=OUT('C:COR1.SAV').


GET FILE='C:COR1.SAV'.

LISREL
/ DA NG=5 NI=16 NO=603 MA=CM
/ MO NY=14 NX=2 NE=5 NK=1 BE=FU GA=FU
/ PA LX
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/ 1
/ PA LY
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/ PA BE
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/ 1 1 0 0 0
/ 1 1 1 0 0
/ 1 1 1 1 0
/ PA GA
/ 1
/ 1
/ 0
/ 0
/ 0
/ PA TD
/ 1 1
/ PA TE
/ 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
/ PA PHI
/ 1
/ PA PSI
/ 1
/ 0 1
/ 0 0 1
/ 0 0 0 1
/ 0 0 0 0 1
/ ST .5 ALL
/ VA 1.0 LX (1,1) LY (1,1) LY (5,2) LY (7,3) LY (10,4) LY (13,5)
/ OU RO AD=OFF MI SE TV RS EF SS SC TO
/ DA NO=607
/ MO LX=IN PH=PS TD=PS GA=IN
/ ST .5 ALL
/ VA 1.0 LX (1,1) LY (1,1) LY (5,2) LY (7,3) LY (10,4) LY (13,5)
/ OU RO AD=OFF MI SE TV RS EF SS SC TO
/ DA NO=602
/ MO LX=IN PH=PS TD=PS GA=IN
/ ST .5 ALL
/ VA 1.0 LX (1,1) LY (1.1) LY (5,2) LY (7,3) LY (10,4) LY (13,5)
/ OU RO AD=OFF MI SE TV RS EF SS SC TO
/ DA NO=599
/ MO LX=IN PH=PS TD=PS GA=IN
/ ST .5 ALL
/ VA 1.0 LX (1,1) LY (1,1) LY (5,2) LY (7,3) LY (10,4) LY (13,5)
/ OU RO AD=OFF MI SE TV RS EF SS SC TO

/ DA NO=314
/ MO LX=IN PH=PS TD=PS GA=IN
/ ST .5 ALL
/ VA 1.0 LX (1,1) LY (1,1) LY (5,2) LY (7,3) LY (10,4) LY (13,5)
/ OU RO AD=OFF MI RO SE TV RS EF SS SC TO.
```

UNIVARIATE SUMMARY STATISTICS FOR CONTINUOUS VARIABLES

VARIABLE	MEAN	ST. DEV.	SKEWNESS	KURTOSIS	MINIMUM	FREQ.	MAXIMUM	FREQ.
Y9	3.347	1.425	-.402	-1.068	.000	16	5.000	609
Y10	3.672	1.355	-.819	-.446	.000	16	5.000	758
Y11	3.946	1.126	-1.084	.749	.000	15	5.000	839
Y12	3.806	1.265	-.925	.002	.000	20	5.000	832
Y7	1.871	1.208	1.240	.576	.000	17	6.000	1
Y8	1.930	1.254	1.072	.059	.000	26	6.000	1
Y3	3.582	1.273	-.664	-.444	.000	16	5.000	623
Y1	3.697	1.197	-.742	-.146	.000	14	5.000	664
Y2	3.608	1.247	-.678	-.376	.000	18	5.000	618
Y4	3.457	1.321	-.458	-.802	.000	18	5.000	611
Y5	3.022	1.321	-.038	-1.020	.000	18	5.000	367
Y6	3.374	1.419	-.412	-1.024	.000	24	5.000	635
TOTAL	2.227	.536	-.148	-.861	1.000	47	3.000	348
Y13	2.256	.641	-.290	-.695	1.000	238	3.000	790
INCOME	1.609	.724	.749	-.754	1.000	1153	3.000	309
EDUC	1.462	.550	.634	-.699	1.000	1218	3.000	58

	country	product	x11	x21	y31	y41	y42	y32	y43	y51	y52
1	1	1	.469	.438	.411	.314	.289	.278	.363	-.073	.093
2	1	2	-.006	-.004	.025	.427	.263	.424	.542	.233	.083
3	1	3	-1.337	2.133	.644	.145	.146	.198	.681	-.061	-.119
4	1	4	.541	.364	.331	.597	.058	.340	.344	-.084	-.048
5	2	1	1.209	.401	.234	.365	.239	.243	.356	.034	-.088
6	2	2	-.020	.016	.413	.371	.292	.211	.394	-.004	.060
7	2	3	-.072	-.028	.398	.419	.348	.142	.507	-.027	-.047
8	2	4	-.024	.018	.418	.438	.300	.244	.418	.262	.117
9	3	1	.539	.082	.538	.448	-.193	.124	.373	.450	-.343
10	3	2	-.037	.032	.116	.671	.609	.344	.062	-.037	.775
11	3	3	-.208	.280	.543	.470	.071	.020	.386	-.425	.616
12	3	4	-.261	.051	.175	.612	-.501	-.320	.224	-.253	.890
13	4	1	.789	.876	.432	.009	.203	.190	.836	.223	-.224
14	4	2	-.926	-.678	.584	.084	.264	.353	.522	-.048	.029
15	4	3	-.868	-.786	.794	.394	.044	.054	.582	-.110	.011
16	4	4	-.431	-1.183	.664	.199	.020	.259	.609	-.368	.028
17	5	1	-.247	.023	.635	.300	.129	.022	.656	.915	-.021
18	5	2	1.666	.394	.726	.293	.261	.045	.669	-.052	.055
19	5	3	-.188	-.358	.797	.360	.146	.057	.627	-.279	-.012
20	5	4	-.584	-.561	.929	.162	.087	.064	.767	-.006	.011
21	1	5	-.623	-.263	.323	.572	.163	.133	.394	.015	-.019
22	1	6	-.623	-.263	.573	.381	.125	.252	.508	.053	.012

	y53	y54	cdy	cdx	cdsem	chi	df	gfi	agfi	rmsr	c1
1	.140	.012	.	.068	.342	2903.05	93.00	.890	.842	.071	1.00
2	.340	-.595	1.000	.	.	4906.50	93.00	.845	.773	.104	1.00
3	-.072	.131	.	-.061	-.235	5204.63	93.00	.828	.749	.079	1.00
4	.028	.317	1.000	.149	.362	2827.25	93.00	.901	.855	.057	1.00
5	.438	-.059	.	.	.	2168.04	93.00	.921	.885	.059	.00
6	-.220	-.055	.	.	.	3603.34	93.00	.874	.816	.096	.00
7	-.065	.062	.	.	.	3604.68	93.00	.869	.809	.102	.00
8	-.091	-.260	.	.	.	2842.47	93.00	.904	.860	.091	.00
9	-.046	.160	.	.634	.294	3579.92	93.00	.876	.816	.070	.00
10	-.467	-.072	.	.	.	5203.21	93.00	.823	.741	.132	.00
11	-.073	.137	1.000	.	.	3112.95	93.00	.886	.833	.090	.00
12	-.128	-.124	.	.	.115	4191.52	93.00	.856	.789	.091	.00
13	.091	.167	.	.089	.832	3580.46	93.00	.874	.816	.069	.00
14	-.065	-.026	.045	.	.873	2760.20	93.00	.900	.853	.053	.00
15	-.108	.130	.	.065	.824	2953.41	93.00	.890	.839	.050	.00
16	-.163	-.015	.998	.026	.	3128.99	93.00	.890	.839	.063	.00
17	.166	-.186	.	.368	.062	3643.17	93.00	.875	.818	.073	.00
18	.022	-.060	.	.	.	3352.57	93.00	.870	.809	.037	.00
19	-.159	.303	.	.598	.155	5200.46	93.00	.871	.738	.059	.00
20	-.082	-.004	.	.214	.494	2980.80	93.00	.894	.845	.041	.00
21	-.022	-.014	.	.038	.415	2685.20	93.00	.903	.859	.068	1.00
22	-.258	.169	.	.440	.045	2900.09	93.00	.900	.854	.066	1.00

	c2	c3	c4	p1
1	.00	.00	.00	1.00
2	.00	.00	.00	1.00
3	.00	.00	.00	1.00
4	.00	.00	.00	1.00
5	1.00	.00	.00	1.00
6	1.00	.00	.00	1.00
7	1.00	.00	.00	1.00
8	1.00	.00	.00	1.00
9	.00	1.00	.00	1.00
10	.00	1.00	.00	1.00
11	.00	1.00	.00	1.00
12	.00	1.00	.00	1.00
13	.00	.00	1.00	1.00
14	.00	.00	1.00	1.00
15	.00	.00	1.00	1.00
16	.00	.00	1.00	1.00
17	.00	.00	.00	1.00
18	.00	.00	.00	1.00
19	.00	.00	.00	1.00
20	.00	.00	.00	1.00
21	.00	.00	.00	.00
22	.00	.00	.00	.00

	country	product	x11	x21	y31	y41	y42	y32	y43	y51	y52
23	1	7	.015	-.201	.467	.503	-.004	.208	.393	.105	.065
24	1	8	.025	-.028	.405	.538	.047	.270	.312	.052	.001
25	2	5	.488	.954	.371	.503	.170	.148	.226	.062	-.114
26	2	6	-.003	.009	.493	.423	.203	.443	.232	-.020	.003
27	2	7	-.020	.029	.202	.349	.005	.359	.214	.019	-.013
28	2	8	.500	.651	.321	.359	.056	.381	.187	-.009	-.026
29	3	5	.905	.907	.066	.139	.125	.241	.482	.079	-.104
30	3	6	-.734	-1.104	.232	-.235	-.172	.795	.446	-.047	.067
31	3	7	36.503	-4.194	.026	.163	-.157	.156	.498	.008	-.087
32	3	8	-.060	.124	-.074	.325	.061	-.360	.512	.002	-.098
33	4	5	.850	.624	.552	.278	.103	.145	.592	.025	-.101
34	4	6	-.594	-.826	.408	.257	.177	.072	.734	-.470	.308
35	4	7	-.762	-.805	.434	.363	.210	.050	.640	.058	.213
36	4	8	.314	1.757	.219	.585	.220	.037	.434	.113	.182
37	5	5	1.061	.460	.866	.365	.086	.036	.565	.787	.057
38	5	6	.231	2.041	.782	.210	.150	.042	.728	-.057	.299
39	5	7	.342	.908	.708	-.044	-.060	.093	.883	.037	.073
40	5	8	-2.081	-.156	.592	.326	.137	.033	.690	.026	-.007

	y53	y54	cdy	cdx	cdsem	chi	df	gfi	agfi	rmsr	c1
23	.131	-.162	.	.377	.040	2316.74	93.00	.912	.872	.074	1.00
24	-.026	-.001	.	.	.	2635.11	93.00	.903	.858	.077	1.00
25	.222	.166	.	.135	.912	2592.57	93.00	.904	.860	.065	.00
26	-.259	.004	.	.	.	3016.21	93.00	.897	.849	.089	.00
27	-.037	-.003	.	.	.	3171.33	93.00	.886	.833	.098	.00
28	-.073	.009	.	.112	.517	2271.85	93.00	.919	.882	.066	.00
29	-.013	.036	.	.082	.902	5331.42	93.00	.810	.722	.142	.00
30	-.014	-.032	.	.116	.	5155.37	93.00	.821	.738	.125	.00
31	.032	.107	.	-.007	-9.955	4428.71	93.00	.849	.779	.125	.00
32	.032	.108	.	.	.	6146.98	93.00	.782	.681	.162	.00
33	-.057	.003	.	.169	.764	5089.28	93.00	.818	.734	.103	.00
34	-.059	.148	.995	.556	.729	4670.14	93.00	.831	.752	.091	.00
35	.271	-.396	1.000	.064	.763	3740.15	93.00	.864	.801	.072	.00
36	-.066	-.170	1.000	.002	.	4012.55	93.00	.846	.775	.089	.00
37	-.097	.037	.	.	.	3742.85	93.00	.877	.820	.034	.00
38	.084	-.170	.	.	.	3011.99	93.00	.891	.840	.041	.00
39	-.255	.280	.	.014	.828	3946.04	93.00	.871	.812	.064	.00
40	.006	-.071	.	.	.	5069.21	93.00	.849	.779	.067	.00

	c2	c3	c4	p1
23	.00	.00	.00	.00
24	.00	.00	.00	.00
25	1.00	.00	.00	.00
26	1.00	.00	.00	.00
27	1.00	.00	.00	.00
28	1.00	.00	.00	.00
29	.00	1.00	.00	.00
30	.00	1.00	.00	.00
31	.00	1.00	.00	.00
32	.00	1.00	.00	.00
33	.00	.00	1.00	.00
34	.00	.00	1.00	.00
35	.00	.00	1.00	.00
36	.00	.00	1.00	.00
37	.00	.00	.00	.00
38	.00	.00	.00	.00
39	.00	.00	.00	.00
40	.00	.00	.00	.00

```
* * * * * * * * * * * *  Q U I C K     C L U S T E R  * * * * * * * * * *
* *

 Initial Cluster Centers.

  Cluster         SCA1A          SCA1B          SCA1C          SCA1D

        1        5.0000         5.0000         5.0000         5.0000
        2         .0000          .0000          .0000          .0000

  Cluster         SCA1E          SCA1F          SCA1G          SCA1H

        1        5.0000         5.0000         5.0000         5.0000
        2         .0000          .0000          .0000          .0000

  Cluster         SCA1I          SCA1J          SCA1K          SCA1L

        1        5.0000         5.0000         5.0000         5.0000
        2         .0000          .0000          .0000          .0000

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- - -

Convergence achieved due to no or small distance change.
The maximum distance by which any center has changed is .1206
Current iteration is  2

Minimum distance between initial centers is 17.3205

Iteration        Change in Cluster Centers
                    1         2
     1           6.3284    6.8176
     2            .2832     .2803

 Final Cluster Centers.

  Cluster         SCA1A          SCA1B          SCA1C          SCA1D

        1        2.9346         3.0376         3.1470         3.4335
        2        1.4798         1.4925         1.5757         1.6351

  Cluster         SCA1E          SCA1F          SCA1G          SCA1H

        1        3.8364         3.5779         4.5490         4.4661
        2        2.1553         1.6817         3.5527         3.5325

  Cluster         SCA1I          SCA1J          SCA1K          SCA1L

        1        3.4909         3.0753         2.5350         2.8292
        2        1.8061         1.6474         1.5057         1.5176
```

* * * * * * * * * * * * Q U I C K C L U S T E R * * * * * * * * * * * *

Analysis of Variance.

Variable	Cluster MS	DF	Error MS	DF	F	Prob
SCA1A	4862.0106	1	1.010	9188.0	4812.3460	.000
SCA1B	5484.0060	1	1.037	9188.0	5285.7001	.000
SCA1C	5672.3362	1	1.105	9188.0	5131.5540	.000
SCA1D	7429.8521	1	.997	9188.0	7451.1242	.000
SCA1E	6491.9542	1	1.146	9188.0	5662.4426	.000
SCA1F	8260.9717	1	1.089	9188.0	7580.3629	.000
SCA1G	2280.6212	1	1.353	9188.0	1685.0103	.000
SCA1H	2002.5418	1	1.423	9188.0	1406.9610	.000
SCA1I	6521.7470	1	1.373	9188.0	4748.0978	.000
SCA1J	4684.1463	1	1.398	9188.0	3350.0041	.000
SCA1K	2433.8054	1	1.038	9188.0	2343.0993	.000
SCA1L	3952.6019	1	1.189	9188.0	3322.0313	.000

- -

Number of Cases in each Cluster.

Cluster	unweighted cases	weighted cases
1	4632.0	4632.0
2	4558.0	4558.0
Missing	1710	
Valid cases	9190.0	9190.0

- -

Report

QCL_1

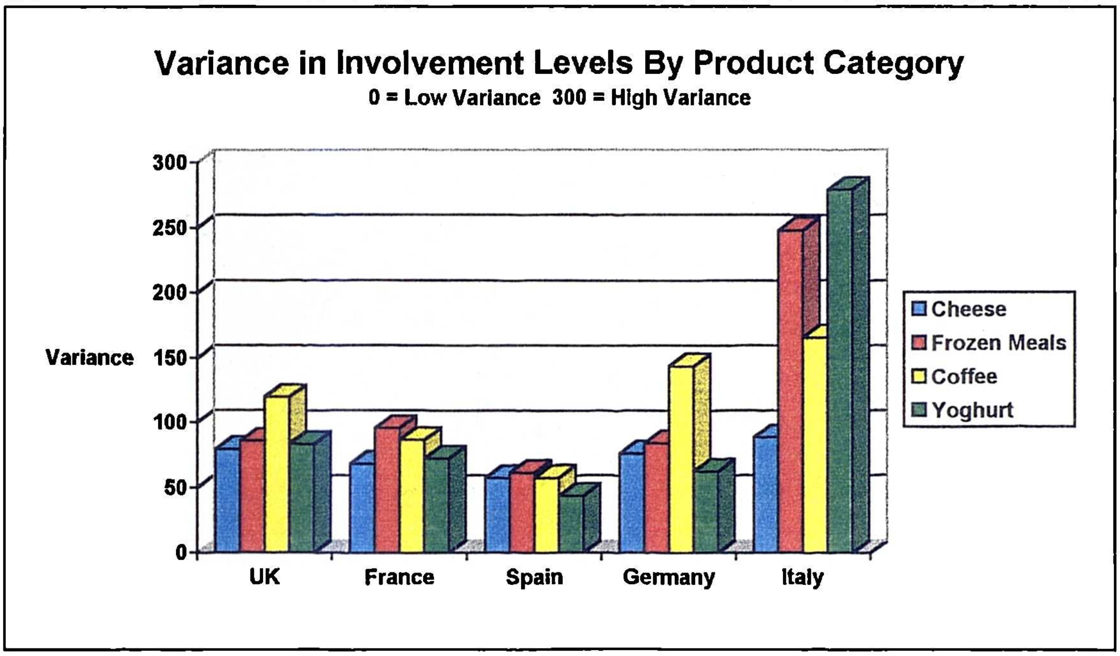
UK	Mean	1.55
	Std. Deviation	.50
France	Mean	1.66
	Std. Deviation	.47
Spain	Mean	1.27
	Std. Deviation	.45
Germany	Mean	1.35
	Std. Deviation	.48
Italy	Mean	1.79
	Std. Deviation	.41
Total	Mean	1.50
	Std. Deviation	.50

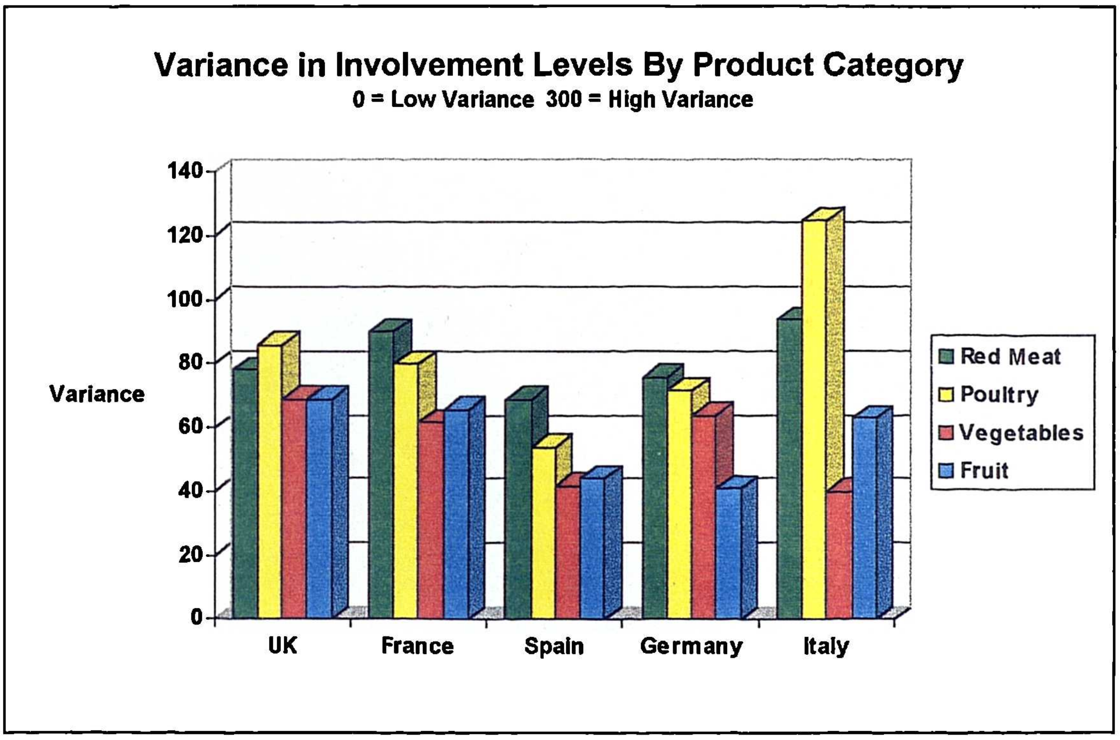
ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
QCL_1 * Country	Between	(Combined)	313.775	4	78.444	363.236	.000
	Within Groups		1983.576	9185	.216		
	Total		2297.351	9189			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
QCL_1 * Country	.370	.137


Variance in Involvement Levels By Product Category
0 = Low Variance 300 = High Variance
Variance
300
250
200
150
100
50
0
UK
France
Spain
Germany
Italy
Cheese
Frozen Meals
Coffee
Yoghurt


Variance in Involvement Levels By Product Category
0 = Low Variance 300 = High Variance
Variance
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
UK
France
Spain
Germany
Italy
Red Meat
Poultry
Vegetables
Fruit